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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 18, 1905.

The Week.

"A notable public service" has been the general comment on President Roosevelt's brief reply to the Chicago strikers. His words were addressed not only to the teamsters of Chicago, but to members of labor unions everywhere; his reference was not merely to the use of Federal troops to preserve order, but also to local constabulary and State militia. The officers of the law, whatever their name and rank, were, he declares, entitled to the hearty support of every good citizen. President Roosevelt was quick to see the real significance of the strikers' protest against troops, of their quotation from Benjamin F. Butler's incendiary harangue about arms and torches in the hands of the workingmen, of their sneer that a "few soldiers" cannot scare "the men who make armies and compose the flower of American manhood." The memorial which was offered to the President was nothing less than a threat that a Federal regiment. if it came to Chicago, would be received as the aggressor. There was no mistaking the sullen defiance of the quesion, "Are we serfs that we cringe at the mention of troops?" It was such expressions that shook Mr. Roosevelt from his avowed intention of receiving the petition without comment: and his words had the strength of a moral indignation the more impressive because unpremeditated.

Seventeen men, including the six members of the employing firm, were concerned in the original dispute out of which the great Chicago strike has grown. Thirty-seven men were present at the meeting that voted it. The Chicago Tribune has attempted an estimate of the monetary loss caused by the disturbance, and concludes that \$2,500,000 a week is near the truth. In the first place, the State Street stores found that their business fell off 10 per cent. or more through sheer unwillingness of shoppers to venture abroad. The railroads are set down for \$350,000 loss, the express companies for \$250,000, the hotels for \$10,000, and the theatres for \$3,000. This estimate of loss from decreased business may not be a fair one, for in many cases, doubtless, the figures represent deferred business rather than loss. The freight will have to be moved some time, and the stores are now crowded with customers who are buying to-day what they wanted to buy last week. But the wages directly lost by striking teamsters would have amounted to \$51,000, and the assessments

on still employed members of the union to \$27,000. Meals and lodging for nonunion drivers cost \$9,000. Finally, 600 special policemen and from 100 to 300 deputy sheriffs were sworn in. For their services the city and county paid \$10,790.

It is somewhat surprising that the non-union bread eaten by John Mitchell at the Civic Federation banquet did not stick in his throat and choke him. Manifestly, the present mode of distinguishing the clean from the unclean food for the union man is inadequate to its purpose. As Mr. Mitchell puts it, rather pathetically, "It is unnecessary to say to your committee that the label is not placed on every slice of bread served." Well, if it is not, ought it not to be? True, some people are so fastidious that they do not like the taste of mucilage. paper, and printer's ink, but they are a weak-stomached lot at best. And there are many ways of accomplishing the result. A skilled baker ought to be able to make the label in some darker substance run lengthwise of the loaf, so that it will appear in the centre of every slice, after the style of the confectioners who make a flag appear in the cross-section of a stick of candy. Better still. perhaps, would be the use of some imperceptible chemical. The difference between a "scab" and a union man being fundamental, morally, mentally, and physically, it ought not to be hard to find some element to which they react differently, some industrial litmus which would turn the unionist blue and the non-unionist red

The President has instructed Secretary Taft that supplies, machinery, and vessels shall, in the absence of action by Congress to the contrary, be purchased in the cheapest market, whether that market be our own or a foreigner's. The organs of protection unblushingly affirm that foreign prices are about 50 per cent, less than domestic prices for the supplies required; that steel dumping cars, for example, manufactured in Pittsburgh, are sold abroad from 30 to 40 per cent, less than in this country: that not only would the ships required cost them twice as much if bought of American builders, but that not until after a delay of eighteen months could they be had at all; and that buying in the cheapest market will materially decrease the cost of building the canal. The instinctive doubt will recur to the private citizen-"If low prices are a good thing for Uncle Sam, why are they pernicious for me?" The particular incident that precipitated the President's order in this matter was the discovery by the Canal Commission that two steamships of the requisite burden could be bought at once

abroad for \$700,000, or could be contracted for at home at not less than \$1,400,000, with delivery guaranteed in a year and a half. Unmindful of the interest of the shipyards of America, unmindful also of the wages thus forfeited by our own workmen, the President ordered the pauper-built ships of foreigners to be purchased, thus committing an atrocious sacrilege in the protectionist holy of holies.

Commissioner Greene's review, at the annual dinner of the Civil Service Reform Association last week, of the extension of the merit system during the last six months constitutes a highly gratifying record, for which Mr. Roosevelt. largely deserves the praise. Indeed, the whole note of the meeting was one of enthusiasm and optimism. The recruiting of the Panama Canal force by means of examination is in itself a triumph for the principle. Mr. Roscoe C. E. Brown. Gov. Higgins's excellent choice for one of the New York State Commissionerships, was also able to report gratifying progress. He wisely dwelt, however, upon the most serious problem before the administrators of the civil-service laws-how to eradicate properly the drones, the shirks, and the insubordinates among our civil servants. Until this is solved wisely, the system will not be free from criticism and complaint. Meanwhile, it is pleasing to learn from Commissioner Greene that senseless and prejudiced attacks in Congress, like those of such honorables as Congressmen Grosvenor and Hepburn, have reached a stage where they can be safely ignored. Just and helpful criticism is as welcome to civil-service reformers as it is to all others striving to improve the governmental machinery.

The Congressional party which is to visit the Philippines this summer un-. der the Insular Government's auspices has been growing small by degrees and beautifully less, ever since Secretary Taft announced that its members will have to pay their own expenses aside from transportation. There seems to be also a general disposition to make little of the possible benefits of the trip. Thus, the Indianapolis News raises an interesting point. "Congress knows very well what is the matter [in the islands]," it says, "and so does all the world. The protected interests that control Congress will not permit that body to enact the commercial legislation that every governor and every national board has declared is necessary." Moreover. "we do not have to go back of our own official reports to learn that we are not

doing things right, but wrong." "To this is to be added the testimony of every person that has written on the subject from an independent standpoint." What, after all, will the party of Congressmen bring home next fall that they have not already in their possession? That any considerable number will change their views on our general colonial policy, or even on the larger measures growing out of it, is not for a moment to be supposed. Nor will they, probably, learn anything pertinent to the pending questions that they could not have learned at home. But the real function of such trips is not so much to instruct as to interest. The insular problems ought to appear a little more vital to the men who have been on the ground. To the numerous minor measures which Congress insists on keeping in its own hands, these men may be disposed to devote more thought.

The unusual promise of the country's wheat crop, shown by the Government's estimate last week, raises some interesting questions. If present indications of condition and acreage were to hold good up to July, the yield of winter-sown wheat would be the largest in our history. It is too early as yet to make predictions regarding the spring-sown wheat, but preliminary estimates point to an abundant acreage and a condition above the average at the start. The question of a large or small wheat yield, always important because of its bearing on the year's industrial prosperity, has peculiar importance now because of our wheat trade's remarkable position. The past year has been marked by what may almost be called our disappearance from the ranks of great wheat-exporting States. In actual quantity, the wheat and flour sent abroad from the United States, since the harvest of 1904, have been much less than in any year since 1872. During two decades, we have held almost continuously the first place among the producing communities which feed the grain-consuming outside world. But the British trade reports for the first three months of 1905 place this country only fifth on the list, with our shipments falling far behind those of Russia, of India, of Australia, or of the Argentine Republic. In actual value, our wheat and flour exports, since last year's harvest, have fallen \$58,000,-000 below those of the same months a year ago, and \$106,000,000 below those of

This shrinkage in our export of wheat and flour has been partly a question of decreasing yield; last year's American wheat crop, for example, having been 196,000,000 bushels under the "bumper" crop of 1901. But it has also been ascribed to other causes than accidents of a season. Broomhall, the English grain

expert, pointing out a year ago the rise in price of American farm lands, the partial exhaustion of old producing districts, and the great increase in home consumption because of increasing population, argued that the United States must inevitably and permanently lose its position in the foreign grain trade. The past year's results are cited as proof of that theory, and they do in some measure prove it. But sweeping generalizations, in matters of this sort, are hazardous. At the beginning of last year, cotton trade experts, domestic and foreign were discussing anxiously how the outside world could make good the loss, by American cotton planters, of the power to keep step with the world's increased consumption. By the end of the year a convention of planters was called at New Orleans to restrict the enormous "over-production" shown by the new crop of cotton. The lesson of this experience was, that nature has its own way of solving some of these awkward problems. In the case of cotton, the high prices created by these very misgivings of a year ago were the means of stimulating production to an unheardof magnitude. It should not be overlooked that the past season's wheat prices have been offering similar induce-

The assumption in Wisconsin politics just now seems to be that Robert M. La Follette will not go to the Senate at all, but will either remain on the spot as Governor and give up another year to securing the sort of Railroad Commission bill he wants, or will himself become a candidate for Railroad Commissioner. It is not by any means the first time that the politicians have concluded they knew what the energetic Governor was about to do. But if he actually does what they expect, it will, indeed, be something new. It appears, however, that the present session of the Legislature will end leaving the railroad regulation question substantially where it was two years ago. It has been one of La Follette's faults or virtues-depending on the point of view-that he has steadfastly refused to accept half a loaf. He could have had a Railroad Commission bill of a sort in 1903. His opponents say that he refused to accept a compromise merely because he wanted to keep a campaign issue in working order. This year they are saying the same thing of his demand for the bill he wants or nothing. But as one of the opposing candidates for the nomination last summer generously testified, "He is the only man who ever convinced the people of Wisconsin that he was sincere on the railroad question." It will be a strange development if, for all his popular following, he should round out his third term with the most important measure of his programme still unpassed.

Oregon's new direct primary law has had its first trial in the nomination of city officers for Portland, and apparently the experiment was reasonably successful. In the face of an energetic, though scattered, opposition from what was called the "church" element, the present Mayor, Auditor, and Treasurer were renominated by the Republicansthe practical equivalent to election. Mayor Williams, with five opposing candidates, received about two-fifths of the vote. The possibility of just such minority nominations is one of the arguments commonly put forward against the direct-primary idea. Under the still untried Illinois statute, a majority vote in the primary is necessary for nomination to the important offices, and the candidate having less must again submit his claims to a convention. The vote in the Portland primary was approximately a third of that ordinarily cast in the regular election. While this is probably a good deal larger proportion than would attend the old-style caucuses, it is much less than is needed to make the direct primary truly representative. Experience in Minnesota, however, has shown that the primary vote will increase very rapidly as people become accustomed to the system.

The high character of the six Superior Court judges chosen by the Rhode Island Legislature the other day, and Gov. Utter's recent speech advocating a moderate reform of the State Constitution, are among the signs that Boss Brayton's subjects are in rebellion. The independent newspapers of New England find themselves cordially endorsing the choice by the Rhode Island lawmakers of William H. Sweetland as chief justice of the Superior Court, and, as associates, Willard B. Tanner, Charles F. Stearns, Charles C. Mumford, George T. Brown, and Darius Baker. All of the six, except District Judge Baker of Newport, are Providence selections. The Boston Transcript reports that "an examination of the personal and professional records of the gentlemen who have drawn these judicial prizes, furnishes presumptive evidence of character, experience, and equipment sufficient to meet the requirements of these responsible positions." The Times of Hartford asserts that "Brayton's candidate for chief justice withdrew from the contest before the vote was taken, and the expected conflict between the boss and the State Committee did not occur." To the mind of the Providence Journal the choice of these men was "a vindication of the State as a whole . . . against those who have been wantonly vilifying the party leaders and the voters who tolerate them."

Gov. Utter's speech was also intended as a rebuke to those crities who have

censured Rhode Island as a boss-bound commonwealth. But he admitted frankly that the Constitution under which corruption flourishes needs revision. He pleaded for the veto power for the executive head of the State, pointing out, what has become a truism in other States, that, as the direct representative of the people, the Governor should have this restraining influence on legislation. Though he defended the small-town members of the State Legislature as no more venal than the representatives from Providence or Pawtucket, he admitted that these latter cities are not adequately represented. Again, after attacking the Citizens' Union plan for a constitutional convention, the Governor pronounced himself in favor of a different scheme-one providing for the automatic recurrence every twenty years of a convention for revision. These things-the breaking of Brayton's grip on the Legislature, the veto power for the Governor, and such an amendment of the State Constitution as will provide for a more "representative" government-are what reformers have been fighting for in Rhode Island. The Republican organization seems, for the moment, bent on showing what a saint the devil can be when he tries.

By a large majority the National Academy of Design has accepted the proposals of Columbia University to create under joint control a school of the theory and practice of art. The general lines of the federation now formally approved are so familiar that we need only recall that Columbia furnishes a site on Morningside Heights, that the Academy is to build a suitable building for its own schools of drawing, painting, sculpture, and engraving, and also for the Columbia courses in architecture, music, and the history and criticism of art. Both the University and the Academy schools will be organized as the art department of Columbia University, but the Academy will continue to maintain its own instructorships and to nominate the incumbents. The result will be a school of the theory and practice of art more rigidly academic in its management than even the École des Beaux-Arts and the affiliated schools of the Sorbonne and Louvre. Only time will tell whether scholasticism is an appropriate atmosphere for the growth of the artist. Meantime, the Academy solves the rather difficult problem of its schools, and is free to work for a central exhibition building. But this plan must wait until the mooted union between the Academy and the Society of American Artists is effected. If this federation should result in a worthy annual exhibition of American art, the general public will care rather little how the Academy schools were eliminated from the transaction. Finally, it should be realized that no thing like absorption of the Academy has been proposed or contemplated. Under the new arrangement, while entering into a partnership with Columbia which is terminable, it retains control of its present schools, and actually gains greater freedom to exercise its functions as an exhibiting body.

Coming, as it does, so soon after the opportune defeat of our own Niagara grab, the refusal of the Ontario Government to ratify an agreement permitting a Canadian company to develop 125,000 more horsepower from the Falls means much. Dr. John M. Clarke, the State Geologist, contributes to the April number of the Popular Science Monthly an article which expresses in mathematical terms his view of the present danger to the Falls. Dr. Clarke quotes "a competent hydraulic engineer" to the effect that the abstraction of 40,000 cubic feet per second from the flow, as measured in past years, will bring the water down to rock bottom on the American fall, and twice that amount will leave the fall entirely dry. The two active American companies are permitted to consume 16,300 cubic feet per second, the three Canadian companies 32,100. This makes 48,000 cubic feet per second out of a total of 222,400 feet, the average of forty years' measurements. The Niagara, Lockport, and Ontario Company, for whose benefit the bills of last year and this at Albany were drawn, would consume perhaps 10,000 cubic feet additional, and the projected power stations on the Canadian side, including presumably the plan just rejected, would have added 29,900. As it stands, according to Dr. Clarke, the use of water for power already authorized will leave the American falls "a weakly, thin, white apron of waters," while, had the American and Canadian companies been granted what they asked this winter, they would inevitably have destroyed the fall entirely on the American side, leaving, supposedly, ten feet of water or less on the Horseshoe.

That the Russian Foreign Office regards Washington and the Far East as merely two extremities of the same diplomatic lever is shown by the fact that Baron Rosen, whose most recent embassy was Tokio, is to succeed Count Cassini, who reached Washington by way of Pekin. The choice of two seasoned diplomats trained in Asiatic diplomacy is, in a sense, a compliment. To set against him their strongest men is a sign of the seriousness with which Mr. Hav's Chinese policy is taken at St. Petersburg. Regret for Count Cassini will be personal rather than official. Rightly or wrongly, a habit of mystification at the home office, and possibly a division of authority over foreign relations, makes the position of all Russian diplomats one of peculiar difficulty. For ex-

ample, although correspondence of a frank sort is the rule between most chancellegies, it is immensely difficult to get written assurances of a substantial kind from Russia. Unquestionably, Count Cassini has suffered at times from the irritation aroused by his principals, and it is probable that diplomacy à la Russe can be continued more acceptably by another Ambassador. But Count Cassini departs with the respect due a loyal agent in a contentious transaction, and with the personal good will even of those who were his most vigorous official opponents.

Marquis Bartélemy, a concessionnaire at Kamranh Bay, lets the cat out of the bag. The Russians, he maintained, did not coal and provision through the French; they had no need to do so. Russia had previously bought a tract at the mouth of the Mekong, on which she established a great coaling station. "It was Russian coal on Russian ground," says the Marquis, "and it was loaded on Russian transports. No Russian warship loaded direct from the depot. There v. no French violation of neutrality. . rance could not prevent the Russians taking their own coal from their own property." Upon the novel doctrine of extra-territoriality propounded by Marquis Bartélemy we are not impelled to linger. International law knows no way by which a belligerent can claim immunity for land serving other than a diplomatic purpose. Of course, the French Government could exercise over the managers of a Russian coalyard on the Mekong precisely the authority it could over a French coalyard. The real question is whether France exercised due vigilance to prevent her colonial possessions from serving as a naval base for Russia. In this matter, France has no counter argument against the Japanese protest except that, contrary to the practice of Germany, Great Britain, and the United States-which hold coal to be conditional contraband-France and Russia have never admitted it to be contraband at all. Accordingly, the local authorities at Saigon felt justified in assuming that a great deposit of coal, of whatever ownership and for whatever destination, was an innocent commodity, into the ultimate use of which no examination was necessary. We believe that if the Japanese should claim damages, as by the law of nations they may, an international tribunal would make short work of a plea so feebly grounded in common sense. It will be difficult to persuade the world that a great naval Power like France would have found herself in her present equivocal position, had she not considered that a lax performance of neutral duties sped the cause of Russia in the Far East. For the moment, M. Rouvier has obtained a vote of confidence from the Assembly on this subject.

NIMROD RAILROAD ECONOMICS.

President Roosevelt's Denver speech upon the matter of necessary railroad legislation had about it a very radical ring. Mr. Acworth, the most noted English railroad authority, had no sooner given his evidence before the Senate committee in Washington, on the 9th fustant, as to the disadvantages of statutory maximum rates, than his arguments were scattered to the winds by the emergence from the wilds of the "mighty hunter before the Lord." Whatever an analysis of Mr. Roosevelt's plan discloses, the speeches of Secretary Taft before the International Railway Congress show clearly that the Administration is going to make a fight on the issue of entrusting the fixation of rates to a Federal commission. The prospect of a lively tussle between the conservative Senate and the Chief Executive adds piquancy to a situation which in itself is invested with unusual general interest.

One unacquainted with the Federal statute-book might imagine from Mr. Roosevelt's utterances that the whole matter of transportation was terra incognita to the lawgiver. Where single individuals or corporations control an important iron highway, it is absolutely recessary, in the President's judgment, that the nation "should assume a supervisory and regulatory function." It aprarently lies outside the orbit of Mr. Roosevelt's thought that a very considerable degree of Federal supervision and regulation has existed for eighteen years. But it is wholly in keeping with his temperament to overlook the powers we have, and to fly lightly to others that we know not of.

As so frequently happens, the somewhat sweeping general utterances of Mr. Roosevelt acquire a certain degree of definition and precision when interpreted by the more experienced members of his official family. It is, therefore, to Secretary Taft's inspired description of the Administration's railroad policy that we must look for its precise features. The Secretary's first pronouncement in favor of the Government's setting rates was received amid universal silence at the dinner of the International Railway Congress. After the presiding officer, Mr. Stuyvesant Fish, had expressed his vigorous dissent to the general scheme. Mr. Taft in his rebuttal remarked that "what is proposed is only that in litigated cases a commission shall be constituted that shall fix a maximum rate." It is this concrete proposal on which careful attention should be focussed.

Under the law at present the Interstate Commerce Commission may order a carrier to reduce a rate which the Commission has found to be unjust, unreasonable, or unfairly discriminatory. The carrier may appeal to the courts, and continue the obnoxions rate until a final judicial determination has been

made. Or the carrier may technically comply with the Commission's order by making an abatement differing by a fraction of a cent from the original rate, and subject the Commission to the endless task of ordering successive abatements. The proposed law would empower either the present Commission or some other Federal tribunal to set a maximum rate which becomes immediately operative, and so continues until and unless set aside by the courts. It must be remembered in this connection that the power to set a maximum rate in a particular instance is apt to be far-reaching. A single rate may be the ganglion of an entire network of interrelated rates, and, if disturbed, may serve to disorder an entire schedule. What are the possible consequences of this power of rate-fix-

The maximum rate under the proposed scheme may on appeal be judicially determined to be unjust to the carrier. The greater number of cases appealed from our present Commission to the Supreme Court have been decided in favor of the carrier. Who is to pay the carrier for the loss of legitimate earnings during the continuance of a rate ultimately adjudged by the courts to savor of confiscation? A consideration of even greater practical moment attaches to the moral effect on railroads of the fixation of maximum rates by a Federal tribunal. The influences which determine the fixation of rates at present are the necessity of meeting competition by land or water at competitive points, and charging what each variety of traffic will bear at non-competitive points. If an abatement in rates will augment traffic and enhance earnings, the carrier grants the abatement. The average rate per ton-mile has steadily fallen under these conditions from 1.990 cents in 1870 to .763 cent in 1903. Let the railroads once fear that an external power may set a maximum rate, and they will probably proceed in rate-abatements with far greater caution. They will try to set rates as high as the tribunal will permit, and will not experiment with lower rates to catch new traffic for fear these low rates may be made a maximum by the Commission. Since Parliament set maximum rates in Great Britain, the tendency of the companies, said Mr. Acworth in his testimony, has been "to maintain rates at the high level."

The main count in the indictment against the President's plan, however, is not that it will fail of its mark, but that it is pointed at the wrong target. It is the secret rebate that is the chief evil in the present system. What guarantee does Government fixation of rates afford against secret rebates? Discrimination is now practised mainly in three forms—discrimination against some localities in favor of others, against some individuals in favor of others, against some classes of freight in favor of others. Discrim-

ination of the second class is, of all, the most insidious and destructive of fair competition. Such discrimination is simply left untouched by the reformatory scheme of Mr. Roosevelt.

What is Mr. Roosevelt going to do about secret rebates? Here the law is ample. Has he proceeded against the individuals, shippers or carriers, who have violated the Elkins act? It is all well enough to say, as did Mr. Roosevelt in his speech, that his proposal, if enacted into law, would not precipitate the millennium. But while inordinate expectations may heap up "a store of incalculable disappointment," neglect of present remedies in the hope that new ones may avail will be equally disastrous. There is strong warrant for the disapproval of that man's pretensions who proposes himself king over ten cities on the ground that he has been unfaithful in that which is least.

OUR PEACEFUL TARIFF POLICY.

The Protean defence of our protective tariff policy is, in some ways, very like a conjurer's hat or a juggler's magic bottle. Is the martial spirit rampant? Then the demonstration quickly follows that the tariff provides us the wherewithal to flourish the Big Stick. Is a peace conference on the cards? Presto! here are the white silken ribbons of international good-will, in seemingly interminable lengths, extracted from the same receptacle. Do foreign nations snarl at our heels? The prestidigitator pours out heartening patriotic wine from his flask. Is it an international convention of men engaged in facilitating transportation? The loving cup is speedily filled from the same magical source.

Some such reflections must follow the analysis of Secretary Shaw's remarks at the dinner of the International Railway Congress. He truly says that there is no such disturber of commerce as war, and that as a nation advances in productive power the dread and abhorrence of the devastation caused by martial conflict increase. But instead of proceeding to develop what would seem the natural corollary, that whatever makes for increased international commerce makes as well for international peace and concord, the Secretary switches his oratorical powers upon the track of demonstrating that our tariff policy has invariably given no cause of complaint to other nations, because we are uniformly careful to cut down their trade with us to the narrowest limits.

Mr. Shaw apparently thinks that foreign nations are in equity bound to manifest towards us a spirit of friendly consideration because, "with few and unimportant exceptions," our markets give no special "preference to any country or to any epople." If this were historically true, it would at least be surprising. After a man has built around

his estate a ten-foot brick wall, and shudder at the corruption of past ages, surmounted the top of it with iron spikes and the jagged edges of broken glass bottles imbedded in asphalt, it is not usual for the proprietor to imagine that the community must entertain for him a neighborly regard because he has provided with absolute impartiality the means to impale any one who would make friendly overtures to scale the barrier. But the Secretary's depiction of our tariff policy in the past will not bear a careful scrutiny. Apart altogether from the present reciprocity treaty with Cuba, which accords a preferential treatment of 20 per cent. on the main Cuban exports to this country, the socalled reciprocity provisions of the Mc-Kinley act were a thinly veiled means of waging a tariff war on certain countries. Where the President discovered that certain countries exporting to us particular products levied on our exports to them duties which he adjudged reciprocally unfair, he was empowered to impose a retaliatory duty upon their imports to the United States. It made no essential difference that our tariff club was labelled Reciprocity. It was, in short, an engine of tariff retaliation. Moreover, the present Dingley act provides specifically for the negotiation of reciprocity treaties, and thus sanctions in express terms the use of special tariff schedules as a means of dickering for preferential treatment in international

How potent, moreover, in invoking the hovering presence of the whitewinged Angel of International Peace is a schedule which reduces to beggary the tin-workers of Cornwall or the buttonmakers of Saxony? So long as certain of our tariff duties are avowedly constructed with the intention of driving from the field our competitors in particular nations and in particular branches of industry, it savors either of ignorance or hypocrisy to pretend that our infrequent resort to technical, preferential treatment of particular nations justifies us in posing as "juster than the rest." The Secretary's proud boast that "the United States has never yet levied retaliatory tariffs" is, only with marked exceptions, accurate as to the letter; in spirit and in truth it is essentially false.

Passing over the ill-concealed threat which the Secretary's speech implied, that we should refrain from openly discriminatory tariff legislation only so long as other nations did the same by us, there is another aspect of the bearing of our tariff upon peace which cannot be overlooked: we mean the effect of our present system upon our internal tranquillity. Not only do such tariff monstrosities as ours tend to embroil us with our neighbors abroad, but they create social unrest and dissension at home. It was Bishop Mackay-Smith, in his recent address on "The Church and Public Brigandage," who declared that while we

yet, in our day, "we virtually say that out of a thousand desirable commodities in life, not one shall be imported into America without the consent of a little group of men who have gotten control of that particular manufacture among us." Let us clear our minds of cant in this matter. We have employed our tariff legislation in an unqualifiedly and undisguisedly selfish way to better our own supposed interests, irrespective of the suffering or injury imposed on any other nation. In our selfishness we have shortsightedly overreached ourselves. And we are now paying the cost not only in being subjected to the tariff retaliation of other countries, but in discovering the viper's nest of discontent among our own people.

A RACE BOGEY.

Mr. Sydney Olivier, an English Colonial official, who has for three periods been acting governor of Jamaica, contributes to the April International Quarterly a remarkable article on the race question in this country. In writing of "The White Man's Burden at Home." he has the obvious advantage of being a trained foreign observer, free from the prejudices and passions which are apt to beset those who treat at close range the racial relations in America. But Mr. Olivier has not been content to get his opinions about the attitude of the whites towards the blacks in the United States from books or newspapers. On several occasions he has studied the question on the spot, impelled not merely by a personal interest, but by his duty as a Colonial official, to watch recent developments affecting the colored peo-

Mr. Olivier does not hesitate to say that on these visits he has found himself "unable to account for an attitude of mind toward the race question which impressed one as superstitious if not hysterical, and which would appear from the tone of the Southern press to prevail widely in America." This is not because there is no race prejudice or hostility towards black people in Jamaica. But such antagonism as appears is unquestionably diminishing, so Mr. Olivier reports. Moreover, a Jamaican of mixed race is not debarred from occupying any position in the social life of the island, including the public service, for which he is qualified. Although the negroes and mixed bloods are in an immense majority (there are but 15,000 whites in a total population of 700, 000), it has never been necessary to defend race purity by forcing the individual negro of merit or the race as a whole into an inferior position. Colored men are landowners, clergymen, doctors, and lawyers. Many colored men are magistrates, and some are the chief

jority of the negroes are peasant proprietors or employees on sugar plantations. Those who rise to high position "associate with the white residents on precisely the same terms as persons of pure European extraction."

Now, according to the theory prevalent in the Southern States, this condition of affairs should have but one result-the decadence of the white race. This has not been the case. While there has been and is intermarriage, especially between colonists of Irish, Dutch, or German origin and negroes, as also between half-whites and women of pure European blood, this ex-Governor of Jamaica has been "unable to recognize that any sort of evil has resulted from their intermarriage: I should rather say the contrary." What is still more important. Mr. Olivier does not find that "social and professional equality between the two races, when resulting from compatibility of temperament and interests, conduces necessarily or strongly to a likelihood of intermarriage." Among the white creoles in Jamaica and other colonies there is a strong repugnance to intermarriage with darker peoples. But as to the mixed race being necessarily "degenerate, deficient, and decadent, both in physique and morals," Mr. Olivier admits that, although he went to the West Indies for the first time sharing the prejudice of this common theory, he has found it impossible to sustain the view after studying the question in Jamaica, Honduras, the Leeward Islands, and elsewhere.

Mr. Olivier has even less sympathy with those persons who would countenance social injustice in order to prevent social equality. As an administrator familiar with judicial statistics, he finds that assaults by black or colored men on white women are practically unknown. The only terrors of Jamaican highways are the white runaways from European vessels. Women and children often live for months on plantations without white protectors, surrounded by colored people. There have been, Mr. Olivier reports, "no savage punishments here, no terrorism, no illegal discriminations against the colored." And he adds significantly, that in his opinion the propensity to the assaults most dreaded by whites south of Mason and Dixon's line is actually stimulated by the very attitude of the whites. He agrees with many psychologists in affirming that there is maintained "a constant storm of suggestion to the most imaginative and uncontrollable of passions in an excitable and imaginative race." "When a class," he continues, "makes the preposterous and self-damnatory announcement to another, whose women it has continually made the mothers of its own offspring, that it is of an inferior order, there immediately is aroused all the self-assertiveness of magistrates in their parishes. The ma- the human claim to equality which is

as fundamental in the African as in any other race." Evidently, Mr. Olivier has been in the South, and has viewed with amazement that double standard of morals which in most circles makes it perfectly permissible to disregard the purity of the negro race while prating vehemently about the need of defending, at any cost, the purity of the women of the white race.

On the political side of the negro problem, Mr. Olivier feels that the bestowal of suffrage upon the newly emancipated slaves was a mistake, and naturally resulted in efforts to cut down the negro electorate "by methods constitutionally indefensible and unjust." But the resulting conditions fill him with alarm. The whites' holding of their position by means of unjust devices gives the negro race "a permanent plea of injustice," and results in a situation "demoralizing in the extreme." Mr. Olivier is even well enough versed in our affairs to see that, in order to justify its position, the minority is "almost inevitably compelled to blacken the character of the colored majority and depreclate their abilities by all kinds of misrepresentations." A truer word was never said on this point. The resulting situation, as Mr. Olivier sees, stimulates hysterics, which vent themselves in "outbursts of lust of blood and torture," and result "in social terrorism and obscurantism." Finally, Mr. Olivier's opinion that the pressure of this terrorism is so great that "sane men in America keep silence, or at best half-silence, in the face of an increasing negrophobia which appears to be developing into a national danger," constitutes a serious warning to be taken to heart by all who believe in the continuance of truly democratic institutions.

A REACTION TOWARDS THE THREE R'S.

"The Proceedings of the Eighteenth Annual Convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland" are not precisely light reading, but the discussion of the simplification of the secondary-school curriculum is pointed and of general interest. Without a dissenting voice, college professors and school teachers agreed that the high-school course has become badly congested, and that the present glut of subjects produces distraction in the teacher and queasiness in the student. President Warfield of Lafayette College illustrated the case by a personal experience: "When my oldest child reached the stage in the grammar grades of the public school that he rose from ten to eleven subjects, I despaired." By especial arrangement the lad's schedule was reduced to four subjects-Virgil, Greek, German, and algebra, upon which rational diet he is now thriving.

To appreciate the absurdity of such a regimen for lads and lasses, one need only recall that five or six subjects simultaneously is a maximum for college students, who are presumed to bring to their diverse tasks better disciplined minds. Even with the deduction of subjects nominally of a recreative naturedrawing, singing, gymnastics, physical culture, and the like-the remainder is a portentous educational bolus for any young person to swallow. The reductio ad absurdum of the theory that every high-school pupil should seek a Baconian grasp upon all knowledge, was furnished by Miss Haeseler from the record of the Philadelphia High School for Girls. To meet the demands of educational theorists, "one thing after another was introduced, until, finally, we had a course with cooking and sewing at one extreme, three languages and six sciences at the other, with several commercial subjects in between, besides English, mathematics, history, drawing, music and calisthenics." Happily, the burden was so palpably excessive in this case that the unloading process was prompt; the commercial courses were transferred to an especial school, cooking and sewing gave place to the oldfashioned studies, three foreign languages were reduced to two, and the curriculum became, if still overweighted, yet practicable.

Generally speaking, these teachers noted with praise a tendency to simplify the excessive programmes of ten years ago, and there was much enlightening comment on the causes of what might be called the "haggis" theory of secondary education. It was agreed that, in part, merely the experimental mood of America was responsible. As a people, we dearly love to try things, and in gratifying this passion we have not spared our most revered institution, the public school, having stuffed into it more than it will hold. Furthermore, the public schools are under the strain of providing three curricula-one suitable for the high-school graduate who pursues his studies no further, the others for the student preparing for college or technical school. Thus there has been a double source of congestion: first, the highschool course has been inflated through a false analogy with the college, and especially through a kind of travesty of the elective system; while, second, as the college requirements and those of the scientific schools have been diversified by the substitution of other studies for Greek, by the addition of sciences, etc. there has been great pressure to introduce a similar diversity into the secondary schools.

A great variety of studies, then, must exist in the high schools, whose practical problem is to see that no student gets more than a fair stomachful. In other words, teachers must eschew so-called election, and hold their students to logi-

cal groups. On the possible harm of the elective system Professor West of Princeton spoke the following pungent words, which, however contestable in their application to the colleges, are unquestionably valid for the secondary schools. The elective system, he said, is "no system, and not elective."

"It is not a system, because under it the studies are arranged on the basis of a grand negation—a doctrine of impotence on the part of the university to find out what ought to be first, second, third, and so on, in the order of studies. And it is not elective, because it rests on the student's caprice, and, as one brought up in an old Calvinistic boyhood, I do not understand that this easygoing caprice was what was meant by election."

How necessary such a recall to some principle of selection is, a statement of the reformed and simplified course of the Philadelphia High School will show. All students study during the four years three branches of mathematics, four of history; English, including grammar, rhetoric, composition, and literature; drawing, music, botany, biology, chemistry, physics, physiology, physical geography, and two out of the three languages, French, German, and Latin. To touch upon merely one item, the amount of half-baked, epitomized science with which these Philadelphia schoolgirls are crammed, is enough to make an impressionist out of a Herbert Spencer.

The ultimate cause of this profusion Mr. James G. Croswell of the Brearley School based most philosophically upon our superstitious attitude towards education in general. Failing to perceive its true aims and limitations, we expect of it what can only be furnished by the training of home or the subsequent discipline of life. We expect the child to work out his personal salvation in the short school years, or not at all. Against this fallacy he made a convincing plea:

"Let us beware of treating the school curriculum like a bottle of some mystic elixir of life; let us not feel that the school curriculum must cover the whole of a child's existence, and give him all his life. You all know what I mean; you know that it is our professional temptation to try to get hold of the whole of a child's life. Teachers often resemble too much in their theorizing people who found hospitals for the abnormal child; we do not trust the American boy to look after any part of himself at all. Now I do not believe personally, from the children I have seen and the children my friends and I were, that childhood now needs so much extra attention from theorists as it is getting."

A little reflection upon the men that were produced under the narrow dispensation of the three R's in the schools, and of Greek, Latin, mathematics, metaphysics, with a modicum of science in the colleges, would show that our American optimism were best proved, not in making the school a substitute for life, but in trusting much to those extra-scholastic processes of education which lie at every man's hand. Such a view will lead to simplification and thoroughness in the curricula of the schools, or, as Professor West cogently summed the

matter up, "The new and hopeful force now beginning to work is a plain, old-fashioned, but very much neglected thing. It is the common-sense of parents, teachers, and pupils, slowly gravitating toward the grouping of a few things of first value, a few central studies taught amply by the best teachers procurable, and conspiring to one end—a great, far-acting and almost forgotten end, namely, an education."

LOQUITUR MR. BALFOUR.

Question time in the House of Commons permits a variety of topics and a discursiveness of tone that go far to relieve the rather sedate proceedings of the mother of parliaments. Sometimes an equestrian member calls the Government to account for the mud in Rotten Row; contrariwise, a question may evoke one of those brief but comprehensive surveys of world politics in which Mr. Balfour excels. Thursday, when the topic of imperial defence was up, furnished such an occasion.

We pass, as of merely technical interest, his project for concentration of the fleet. Such a policy is wholly in line with modern ideas of warfare, which draw the first line of defence. not at the stations of the respective squadrons, but at the points where they can surely deliver an effective attack in the event of war. From this point of view the dispatching of fighting units to distant station service is, in an emergency, an unfortunate dispersion of forces. Of more general significance was Mr. Balfour's comment on the employment of mines in defence. These he considered rather an embarrassment than an aid to a strong naval power, maintaining that loss was as likely to occur to the home squadron from accident as to the enemy from design. On the matter of floating mines in the high seas Mr. Balfour declared his disapprobation with energy. The case, he held, called for an international conference, and for an authoritative prohibition of a practice so inhuman and so dangerous to neutral shipping. In submarine boats, however, Mr. Balfour recognized a means of defence against hostile invasion quite as effective, boat for boat, as ships of the line.

Why the invasion of England should be a periodical cause of apprehension, it is difficult for an American to imagine. One would suppose that an immunity running for more than eight centuries of frequent warfare would have laid that bogey. That it persists, is a sign of the extraordinary capacity for uneasiness which characterizes the island race. Thus, all England from time to time contemplates in abject melancholy the destruction of its commerce, and foemen swarming up through Kent to London Bridge. The sentiment is so thoroughly British as to be almost respecta-

ble, and Mr. Balfour demonstrated with considerable gravity that, in Lord Roberts's judgment, it would be a bad business for less than 70,000 men to attempt to land on the Tight Little Isle, and that even so many would hardly get to Billingsgate.

Of more than insular concern was his statement that the Government is on the alert in Afghanistan and fears no surprise in that quarter. On the other hand, Mr. Balfour admitted the failure of diplomatic attempts to check the Russian advance, and estimated, on Lord Kitchener's authority, that, in addition to the regular Indian levies, a contingent ferce of eight divisions, say, about 80,-000 men, should be in readiness for that service. Any diplomatic wavering in Afghanistan would greatly increase the expense and difficulty of the permanent defence of India. The inference was plain that the Government would stand firm at the Afghan border; at this point relinquishing, if necessary, that policy of Platonic protest in the face of which Russia has progressively absorbed all Western Turkestan. The general subject used to be one of considerable irritation to Lord Salisbury, and it is refreshing to find that Mr. Balfour takes the coolheaded view that the Russian advance is instinctive, and not based upon a deliberate plan for the invasion of India.

We have followed Mr. Balfour's somewhat discursive talk at length because it hints at elements of strength in the foreign policy of a Premier whose home policy stands sadly discredited. For the present it is likely that Mr. Balfour will direct the attention of England outwards, that the intentions of the Turk and Greek may compete with the protestations of "passive resisters." It is always an effective argument, applied usually in time of war, not to swap horses when crossing a stream, and Mr. Balfour undoubtedly has a strong apologia at command in pointing to important foreign business yet unfinished, and asking, "Do you wish to turn over to the Little Englanders the renewal of the Japanese alliance, the negotiations at Fez, and the fiscal reforms in Macedonia?" However disingenuous such a challenge, it has a certain political effectiveness, and it has the unquestionable advantage of diverting attention from the seamy side of the present Administration to that fair surface on which are embroidered Mr. Balfour's and Lord Lansdowne's diplomatic achievements. It is possible that the record and prospect may hearten the wearied rank and file of Unionism, and somewhat diminish the urgency of the Liberal attack. But the best Mr. Balfour can hope to do by putting forward his foreign policy as his best card, is to obtain a respite from the Nemesis gathering because of his educational policy at home, the Chinese labor act in

the Transvaal, and his lukewarmness before the dilemma of protection or free trade.

THE INTERNATIONAL RAILWAY CON-GRESS.

WASHINGTON, May 15, 1905.

Section Four of the International Railway Congress, which has just closed, dealt with the principles upon which railroad rates should be based, and railroad bookkeeping. wages, and provident institutions conducted subjects of more than ordinary interest at the present time. They were all, however, treated more or less from a theoretical point of view, and the resolutions reached were invariably of a general and academic character. Still, there was an almost unanimous concurrence of opinion, among representatives of State-owned as well as of private roads, that the less Governmental interference the better. The South Australian delegate, whose Government owns and absolutely controls the railroads in all their departments, said that the principle upon which the colonial authorities acted was that the railroads must pay 31/2 per cent. net revenue. When business was brisk the rates were low; but when business was dull. in order to secure that return on the capital invested the rates were simply raiseda method which would be rather difficult to apply were the Government here to own the 210,000 miles of roads running through sections one of which might be prosperous and another the reverse. The representative of Indian railroads complained that the Government of India not only fixed maximum rates, but, in order to insure a return on the capital invested, hampered the railroad transportation with minimum rates. The result is that, with the enormous increase of business of late, the minimum rate has become an actual detriment, not only to the growth of traffic, but likewise to the revenue of the road, as the main line between Delhi and Calcutta, if rates were lowered, would return, through augmented traffic, a larger net revenue than at present. The Government, though urgently appealed to, has heretofore refused, out of timidity, to either abolish or lower the minimum rate.

But the discussions out of Congress were, we believe, decidedly more animated than those in the Congress itself. 'At the opening of the Railroad Equipment Exhibit this peaceful and peaceable assemblage was addressed by the two belligerent members of the President's Cabinet, the Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy. That the Secretary of the Navy should have referred to the subject of railroad rates is not to be wondered at. The Secretary of War poked mild fun at his colleague on the subect, but did not give any intimation of the outburst of threatening advice to which he treated his hosts at the banquet given by the American Railroad Association. The subject has been so thoroughly discussed in the public press that it is hardly necessary to reflect upon the apparent discourtesy of charging American railroad men, before their foreign guests, with influencing legislation, presumably by illegal and improper methods. The anomaly was so palpable that a Hungarian delegate, who made the final speech, commented on the peculiarity of American dinners, where, instead of fun

and conviviality being the prominent features, political discussions were indulged in. Presumably, however, Mr. Taft appreciated that it was the only occasion on which he would have an opportunity of emphasizing the views of the Administration before a large body of American railroad men.

There is apparently a curious divergence of opinion between the railroad men and the people at large, if the Administration expresses the public sentiment. Railroad men claim, what every one admits, that rates, as a rule, are low-lower, in fact, than in any other systems of railroads in the world. They claim that secret rebates are seldom given, and, if given, could be no more easily detected under the Townsend bill than under the existing Elkins bill; and that where unjust rates are made, the present law offers the injured party means of redress. Secretary Taft wittily remarked that that is true, but that, for instance, a town against which discriminating rates had been published could probably not obtain relief within five years, by which time, if it were situated in the Middle West, it might be blown away by a

On both sides there has certainly been a great deal of oratory and ill-temper, very little calm argument, and still less production of facts. That comparatively few cases have come before the Interstate Commerce Commission in the past is used as an argument to prove that comparatively few individuals or localities have considered themselves sufficiently injured to make it worth while appealing to the Commission or the courts for redress. There is no doubt, however, that if more summary jurisdiction were given to a court, and the method of procedure were simpler, there would be more appeals. Whether those appeals would in most cases be decided in favor of the appellant, may well be doubted. It is probably true that the great body of the shippers are satisfied with existing rates. But as long as there is water, and there are centres of land competition, discrimination against a short haul and in favor of the long haul will excite local complaints. To adjust this anomaly was the chief motive for the creation of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and yet, when that body came to consider all the conditions, it justified the railroads in not carrying freight on a mileage basis irrespective of length of haul and terminal distinctions.

Whatever wrongdoing may be occasionally committed, railroad managers should not. as a body, be charged with deliberate and persistent crime. They are trying, with all the experience they possess, to adjust one of the most intricate problems which can face any body of men, that of making rates for two hundred-odd thousand miles of railroad, running through districts whose interests are not only varied, but in many cases distinctly antagonistic. And they are doing this in a manner to return some profits to the shareholders, while developing the territory which their roads traverse and supply; for, of course, on the prosperity of the country which they serve depends the volume of traffic, and, conversely, as is admitted by all, the railroad itself is the most important factor in creating that prosperity. The position of any body of men endowed with the functions which the traffic managers of the country now fulfil, will be that of politicians out of office

when they become politicians in office. Out | commissions, with summary powers, are orof office the politician, dealing in generalities, can right all the wrongs that the body politic is suffering from. As soon as he is brought face to face with the actual maladies of the patients, and when life or death depends upon his treatment, he finds that the task of curing them is not as easy as he supposed. One thing the commission of Rate-Makers will discover is, that no highand-dry rule can be applied, or they will kill the goose for the golden egg. They will find that to secure low rates there must be large volume of traffic, and, to secure a large volume, some of it will have to be carried at less than cost, if even reasonable rates are to be imposed for the

Most railroad men deny that actual private rebates are given to any extent. If they are given, nothing but a rigorous Government audit will prevent them, and this could be made without affecting rates: and if rebates are given, it is doubtful whether they are given more to the large shipper than to the small, for as a rule the large shipper has sufficient influence to secure what he wants and induce the railroad to publish the rate. It is probably the fact that the extraordinary decline of late years in published rates has been secured through the influence of the big shipper, and that the small shipper, if able to do so, has thus benefited by it. The desire of competitive lines to secure the freight of a big shipper has induced public ratecutting between competitive points. If the big shipper be on a single line of railroad, the dread of exciting and creating a competitive line is as potent as competition in securing low published rates. The big shipper with a large volume of business can thus influence the transportation company when the small shipper would be helpless. That the small man is weak and laboring under constantly increasing disability in this as in other respects, is due to the modern tendency to consolidation. This is his misfortune, and it is perhaps ours, but the railroads are certainly not to blame for it. Under any act the big shipper, through his personal influence and the vast volume of business he contributes, will secure attention, whether the rates be fixed by a traffic manager or a Government commission, and the small shipper will benefit by the energy and power of his more important competitor, and should be thankful. This is on the assumption, which is generally admitted to be true, that the rates he secures are made public and are applicable to all. But if. by private-car line, industrial termini, and too great disparity between full and broken carload rates, he is discriminated against, legislators should devise some method of speedy relief.

There may be great hardships inflicted on the public by this means, but as yet the public has been supplied with remarkably little accurate information. Strange to say, the most costly of all monopolies to the public at large is the Pullman Company's control of through sleeping traffic. But the public complacently submits, perhaps because it thinks it actually knows the worst. The Senate committee has been collecting some information and a great many opinions and a large volume of advice; but before new courts are created and new

ganized, it would seem to be the part of prudence that the public be supplied with actual facts, not on the authority of political orators, but given by witnesses who can testify whereof they know under oath. The result might possibly be as unsatisfactory as Mr. Garfield's report on the Beef AN OBSERVER.

THE NEW TOMB AT THEBES.

HARTFORD, Conn., May, 1905.

Every tourist in Egypt knows the valley of Biban el-Mulûk-the Tombs of the Kings. Every tourist has felt, willingly or unwillingly, the spell of mystery and silence and desolation as he followed the winding paths that led him away from the smiling green fields, up the gently sloping track marked out by the Pharaohs of old, through fold after fold of orange cliffs, blazing under the blue sky. No blade of grass relieves the glare of those dead hills; no living thing is to be seen on their bare sides. A kite, perhaps, hangs motionless in the blank overhead, breaking the silence with his shrill whistle, but other life or motion there is none. Shut in from all the world, the kings of Egypt were laid in their tombs to await their resurrection. The centuries passed on. Some of the tombs were remembered by the priests of later days, and the bodies of them removed for greater safety to the other side of the hills, where they were rediscovered some twenty years ago. Others have been forgotten, and, hidden under drift of limestone rubbish, have waited to reward the patient excavators of to-day. Among these were the tombs of Thothmes IV. and Menephptah, and Amenhotep II., and such was the tomb the finding of which has sent a thrill of excitement through archæologists this winter.

In February of this year the new tomb was uncovered by Mr. Davis, an American, working on a site in the Valley of the Tombs of the Kings pointed out to him as 'likely" by Mr. Quibell of the Department of Egyptian Antiquities. The tomb itself was of little importance, being small and undecorated, but its contents were of such beauty and value historically and archæologically as to form some basis for the absurd rumor current in Luxor that the solid gold discovered was worth forty thousand pounds.

When the doorway was uncovered, it was observed that one corner of the masonry that blocked the entrance had been tampered with. A little three-cornered hole had been made, just large enough to allow a tomb-robber to creep through, and this had been filled again with small stones and rubbish. Had this robbery been made in the days when the gods of Egypt held sway or by modern Arabs? The importance of the question lay in the fact that ancient robbers would not dare to disturb the essential amulets and charms left for the preservation of the dead, and would confine their thieving to gold, while a modern would be limited only by the size of the treasures he was able to carry away. To the fact that the theft was an ancient one is due the preservation of so much that is valuable to-day. These ancient robbers had crept through the little hole, dragging down with them a good deal of dust and rubbish, which lay scattered about when the modern

excavators broke in. They had broken open the great outer coffins of black and gold with a sharp stone, which stone, marked with the paint of the damaged coffin, testified against them. Much of the costly jewelry that decorated the bodies, they had carried away; the little that remains bears witness to the value of that ancient raid. The gilding from the state chariot they stripped off, throwing it upon the carven bed, and then they crept out of their little hole, which they filled with rubble, and so it remained, lost and forgotten, until to-day.

When the moderns opened the sealed door, they found what confusion might be expected after that hasty burglary. The triple coffins lay open, the covers lying this way and that, and the mummies, partly unwrapped, lying in the broken coffins. Near by were great chests, open also, holding alabastar jars with provisions for the dead to use upon their journey to the judgment, and further, being "justified," to sustain them in the fields of Aalu. Honey, still viscous in a sealed pot; meat, mummled to ensure its preservation and presumably not unpleasant for a mummy to eat; grain in pots, as yet unopened, of alabaster, stone, and glazed earthen ware; great earthen jars filled with numberless little pots all tied up in linen, and little packages, linen wrapped, of food or gifts for the mummy and his wife. The chariot mentioned above lay upon a carved bed, where the ancient robbers had thrown it when they tired of pulling off its gilding or were frightened away from their plunder. It was broken, but all the parts were there, the wheels, the pole and yoke for the horses, the high front and sides of embossed and gilded leather. Near by stood a chest of wicker work with a movable tray, a veritable basket trunk of B. C. 1500. There were chairs of carved and gold-decorated wood, coffers and boxes carved and gilded, and three great beds not unlike the native angaribs of to-day; the bed made of wicker work, the head-boards and legs of wood, all of the same lavish magnificence, carved, painted, and gold-covered. The triple sarcophagi, too, were of the utmost magnificence. The outer one, in each case a great chest of wood, was painted with bands of decoration in golden figures. The two inner coffins, shaped to fit the bodies, were of black and gold, while the inmost coffins of all were wholly overlaid with gold except for the jewelled necklaces about the necks, which were made of carnelian and glass, inlaid upon the wood.

And within all this magnificence lay the mummies themselves, wrapped in the finest linen that has yet been found in Egypt. What jewels they possess, such as the plate that covers the heart incision and replaces the heart, were of purest gold. The tomb robbers did not find all, or did not dare to take the essential amulets from their owner.

In the corner of the tomb was a heap of down and feathers, the remnants of luxurious cushions; and these were almost the only things that the dry air of the desert has failed to preserve, for the covers fell to dust when disturbed. Among all the treasures and tokens of wealth and magnificence, tokens of good will from princely friends, it is interesting to note one humble offering: at the entrance lay a heap of

dried and withered onions, the common "bassal" of the feliahin, left there, perhaps, by some humble friend of the dead. And the mummies themselves?—great people, surely, by the evidence of all this magnificence. The Egyptologists read the hieroglyphics on their coffins with excitement and growing wonder and delight, for they had found the bodies of the father and mother of Queen Thyi, the rulers of Mitani, that country "between the rivers" whence came the princess, their daughter, to marry Amenhotep III.

Now, Queen Thyl is perhaps the most interesting woman in all Egyptian history, not excepting Queen Hatshepset or the attractive, if disreputable, Cleopatra. What has been known of her was briefly this: She was a princess of Mitani (thought to be Mesopotamia), and the wife of Amenhotep III., whose date in the history books is roughly B. C. 1500. She appears to have been a much-loved and possibly an only wife. As Queen of Egypt, she was obliged to conform to the State religion, which regarded the king as high priest and incarnation of Ra upon earth; but from her after-life it is evident that she never forgot or really laid aside the simpler beliefs learned at home from this stern-looking Semitic father, the owner of the new tomb. Her son, Amenhotep IV., was associated with his father and succeeded him, and at his accession Queen Thyi's real power began. Under her guidance, her son threw aside the religion of his father, the worship of the gods of Thebes, the family of Amen, and in its place instituted the worship of one god, typified by the solar disk. He did his best to stamp out the ancient Amen worship, changing his own name from "Amenhotep" to "Khenuaten," and even cut out the "Amen" from his father's name in Luxor temple. Finally, he and his mother removed their court from Thebes, the priestly city of Amen, to Tel el-Amarna, where they built a temple to the sun disk, and from whence come most of the curious reliefs of the heretic king and his mother worshipping the life-giving disk of the sun.

The finding of these mummies makes clear this much at least: the parents of Queen Thyi were foreigners-witness the name on her father's coffin, which was spelled in three different ways, showing that the Egyptian scribe was puzzled in his transliteration of a foreign name. When the faces were unwrapped, while the woman's, small and delicate, suggested a French woman's in its refinement of type, that of the man was of extraordinarily Semitic cast-a strongly marked hooked nose, heavy brow, and large mouth, with full lips; a face of great power, but not bearing the remotest resemblance to the Egyptian type. A curious detail noted was that the locks of hair remaining were distinctly red in tint, and that there was a two days' growth of beard on lips and chin.

There lay the ruler of Mitani and his wife; but why were they there? Did they come down, like Jacob, to end their days in Egypt, where a beloved child had met with rank and honor? Had they lost sway in Mitani, and sought a refuge in Mizraim, or had they merely come to pay a state visit, and, dying in this foreign land, were buried with such honor as the Egyptians knew how to bestow? The burial was evidently during the reign of Amenhotep III., because the fashionable site for a tomb

was then at Thebes. Later, when Khenuaten held sway, the great people of the land were interred at Tel el-Amarna. There is some evidence to show that this was a temporary resting-place only. The great wooden coffins, in their magnificence of gold leaf and black, were still standing on the black sledges that had brought them there, all ready to be dragged up again to the light of day. Perhaps there was a magnificently decorated tomb preparing for them elsewhere, which they were never to occupy, or perhaps this strange king went to his grave, intending, like Joseph, that his body should return to his own land, with all its treasure, its provisions, and its furniture. Who can say?

It seems a pity to have to record that all these wonderful things are now in Cairo, and, after they have been unpacked and examined and written about and discussed, and the museum has been rearranged and enlarged, will be exhibited there. In the present state of the country no other course is possible, and precautions unheard of in law-abiding countries must be taken for the preservation of every find. The danger of thieves among the workmen, or from the neighboring villages, and even of an armed raid from Bedouins encamped beyond the hills, made a guard of soldiers necessary at the tomb from the first moment of its discovery. The head of the Department of Egyptian Antiquities at Luxor, his assistant. the archæologists at work excavating at Theban sites, and two volunteers selected by the head, took turns at watching the tomb, sleeping at the door, and never leaving a packing case or a funerary jar unwatched; and unless it were possible to keep up these extraordinary precautions winter and summer, the treasure must necessarily be taken to a place of safety. Four or five years ago a particularly perfect tomb was discovered and opened. It had remained undisturbed through the ages since the priests had sealed it, as they hoped, forever. The flowers strewn on the coffins still lay upon them, and the boats to ferry the dead stood ready for launching with their freight of bodies. So perfect and undisturbed was this tomb that, by special request of Lord Cromer, most of the funeral furniture was left in place, an iron gate set at the door of the tomb, and a guardian installed to keep the key; and within a week the tomb was broken into, one of the great funeral barques removed, and the mummy, that lay in state upon it, thrown down and broken to bits. Nearly everything that remained in that tomb was then taken to Cairo, and until civilization reaches farther into the desert, until tourists and Semitists and great European museums cease to seize every possible chance to acquire stolen antiquities, the tombs must be rifled by the authorities themselves, and their treasures placed in safety.

It was an immense piece of work to pack every jar and box and chair of the new tomb, to say nothing of the enormous coffins, so that they could be safely carried down over the four miles of desert and green fields, on camel, on men's shoulders or on rollers and temporary rails, across the river to the trains waiting to carry them to Cairo. The work was interrupted not once or twice, but again and again by visitors and grandees of varying magnitude. Nominally no one was allowed to see the

tomb, but every archæologist from up river and down, from the east bank to the west, holders of private concessions and members of the archæological departments from every nation of Europe and from America, considered himself an exception and was courteously admitted. The head of the Department of Egyptian Antiquities came at once to the spot to see whether the discovery amounted to anything; and, on assuring himself of its value, arranged that the Duke of Connaught, returning from an official visit to Khartum, should "open" the tomb as he passed through Luxor. The Duke's party having departed, orders were given to pack everything at once so as to get the treasures safe to Cairo as soon as possible; but the work had to stop again for another English duke, and again for an earl to see what was to be seen, and once more to admit Eugénie, ex-Empress of the French.

There was one delay, however, that is delightful to record. An American artist who was present at the opening of the tomb was allowed to make a sketch of the interior as it first met the eyes of the excavators. He has recorded on canvas just how the tomb robbers had left the huge sarcophagus of gilded and painted wood with the covers broken open and the mummies lying in the wreckage; and, further, he has made two exquisite pencil drawings of the faces of the two mummies, the delicate refinement of the woman's contrasting with the rugged strength and power of this ancient king of Mitani. Perhaps, at some future day, when Egyptians have become a law-abiding nation, his sketch may be used as a guide, the treasures restored to the tomb as they were before, and the king and his consort permitted to sleep there again in peace.

ELEANOR MARGARET FERGUSON.

Correspondence.

LIVING WAGES FOR PROFESSORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Carnegie's gift of ten million dollars to found a pension fund for the benefit of aged college teachers implies the strongest possible criticism of their present position, and furnishes one of the strongest arguments in favor of proper payment for them. Government servants-in other words, servants of the people-may look forward with no loss of pride to retiring on pensions in old age; for if they and the people agree to accept and to give a low remuneration for years, on the understanding that the survivors will be taken care of, it is their affair. There is also no wound to a man's pride in taking service in a college and agreeing to accept a lower salary for years in order that, in his old age, he may be sure of support by the college which he has faithfully served. But the endowment of institutions for the care of the sick, of the infirm, of the feebleminded, and of college professors is an entirely different affair. Circumstances bevond their control fix the fate of the feebleminded, and this is also true in many cases of the sick and infirm. Society should take care of such. But do circumstances beyond their control fix the fate of college professors also? Is it inevitable that they must become public charges unloss cared for by relatives or friends? And if this be true, what circumstance or circumstances make this inevitable?

As shown by "G. H. M." in an article in the May number of the Atlantic Monthly, a college teacher who is married and has any children must supplement his salary in some way or other lest he run into debt. This is pointed to by Münsterberg, in his 'American Traits,' as a grave defect in our educational system, turning aside men. young as well as older, from the investigations which they have the training, the mental ability, and the desire to pursue, to work which will yield a pecuniary and more immediate return. Thus we have successive crops of more or less admirable school-books written by college professors. These books, if successful, yield large returns to the authors as well as the publishers, but they contain few, if any, real contributions to knowledge. Many college teachers deliver addresses on all sorts of occasions, and for all amounts of pay, by this means adding to their meagre incomes at a sacrifice of time, of strength, and of the continuity of scholarly work which they and their colleges can ill afford. A fractional part of the whole body of college teachers is engaged in work more or less in demand by the business world. Engineers, chemists, physicists, geologists, and even biologists of certain sorts, are consulted as experts from time to time about practical problems, and receive corresponding remuneration. Some of these men may employ the long summer vacations in wellpaid work; others, by taking leave of absence for a year or two, may in that short time recoup themselves for the small return of years of teaching. Most college teachers, however, have no supplementary income or source of income. The supply of Greek text-books slightly exceeds the demand, and the sale of books making real contributions to science does not encourage author or publishers to over-indulgence in their production. As "G. H. M." points out, the only alternative for the young man entering college work is celibacy or

This is something altogether different from a "vow of poverty." The college teacher need never pray, "Give me neither poverty nor riches," for he can never escape the one nor attain the other, save by the European method of marrying a rich wife. Between the wear and tear and distraction of the fruitless struggle to make the ends meet, and the loss of time and scholarship in the few cases of money-making among college teachers, there is no comparison. The loss to American colleges and American learning by the former is incalculably greater than by the latter. No pension fund promising future support can relieve present distress. The problem is how to pay the grocer now, not how to be kept from starving in old age; how to be able to earn money enough to support one's wife and educate one's children, not whether one will outlive the other fellows and get a pension. That one of the keenest, most successful business men of the day so realizes the hopelessness of the college teacher's old age as to make some provision for it, indicates his conviction that something must be done at once to relieve those who cannot now be helped in any other way. For a man approaching old age after years of inadequate pay, a

pension is the only salvation. For younger men in the college career, Mr. Carnegie's pension system is not the only salvation, nor the one which the self-respecting and independent man would choose. If Mr. Carnegie had directed his generous gift and the weight of his influence against a scale of salaries which forces the college officer to celibacy or to want, there could be greater satisfaction in the feeling of gratitude and appreciation merited by such a gift. Let the salaries of college men be what they should, with fewer college men if need be, and there would be no occasion to fear an indigent old age.

Very truly yours, G. J. P. May 8, 1905.

THE ART MERGER IN NEW YORK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Noting, in your last issue, the appointment as professors of architecture in Columbia University of Mr. C. F. McKim and Mr. Thomas Hastings, both in proprid persona well beyond the suspicion of acquiring their practice by dominant lowclass political and commercial rather than by artistic and professional regimen-which is more than can be said of some other prominent architects-you then advert, approvingly of course, to the proposed alliance of Columbia with the National Academy of Design. President Butler includes with these the Metropolitan Museum of Art in his scheme for such cooperation as will lead to the establishment of an adequate School of Fine Arts-for all of them, as I understand-and the New York papers generally have discussed the subject appreciatively and with considerable point.

Such a project commends itself to probably a majority of the practitioners and lovers of any of the fine arts-plastic, graphic, tonal, or other; but the movement, to be successful, will have to be managed very carefully. "United we stand, divided we fall," is an old maxim; and every one familiar with the vicissitudes and frequent failures of well-meaning and enthusiastic, but not always far-seeing, art associations in this country during, say, the last two decades, knows how often they have fallen for want of standing together, shoulder to shoulder, in a not invariably appreciative and responsive community; some, indeed, having staying power enough to rise again for another wrestle with untoward circumstance, but more, perhaps, staying prone in final collapse.

Confronting, however, this it may be hoped for majority of well-wishers to an amalgamative art project, it should be remembered that in all bodies banded together for the attainment of a special end there are very sure to be some who are so constituted that their motto is "Stare super vias antiquas, et non quieta movere." They represent the conservative element, which is as necessary for the equilibrium and continuity of any large fraternity as is the reformatory element for its expansion and maximum usefulness. Moreover, it is in this class, rather than in that of the aggressively active, that one is apt to find the majority of those who have longest held the laboring oar in their society, and are the most familiar with its history and current workings. No matter, therefore, how pure and public-spirited may be those urgent for a change of methods and for strength-gaining cooperation with cognate hodies, this conservative element not unnaturally regards them with suspicion, and resents alike the merging of their specific association with any others, and the assumed absorption by those others of the treasures the accumulation and custody of which have been their hobby. They are apt to ascribe only motives of self-aggrandizement to them, and to assign them the rôle of the proverbial bull in the china shop; and naturally their ire is specially aroused if a preconcerted programme for a merger in which they have had no hand is suddenly submitted to them. For the success of a new movement such worthy and faithful standard-bearers must be fairly, squarely, and openly reckoned with from the start, no matter how good the ground and how disinterested the motives of the party intent on beneficent change.

I venture to offer these suggestions to the distinguished promoters of the comprehensive art and educational scheme now under public discussion, because, through the lack, I judge, of such reckoning ab initio. I have witnessed repeated failures in similar, if less important, projects-the last time within a few months when, acting as a member of a joint committee of the Historical Society of New York and the Numismatic and Archæological Society on the question of a merger of the two bodies in (as I am individually convinced) the ultimate true interest of both. Not a few laudable and really feasible projects, as much to the real advantage of the opposing factions as to that, both current and final, of the public, have, as every student of history, and not least of art history, knows, been long delayed, even if they have not received their coup de grâce, through those rampant faults of human nature, too strong an appreciation of one's own sagacity and rectitude, with too low an estimate of the like in others, and the conviction that there is no right way of thought or action save one's own way.

I have written at so much greater length than I contemplated on a subject deeply interesting to me, as doubtless to so many others, that I must, at least for the nonce, forego what I intended to submit further to your indulgence on several other heads when I cut the leaves of your weekly of last Thursday.

A. J. BLOOR.

STONINGTON, CONN., May 7, 1905.

A GRIEVANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The schoolbook publishing business is very largely an industry of the last sixty years. Before that time comparatively few books were published, and those few were inferior in subject-matter and in mechanical construction. Sixty years ago it was not an easy matter for an author to obtain a publisher for his book. The demand was so limited that very little capital was attracted to that line of business. The children used at school whatever happened to be placed in their hands. It was not at all unusual to find several kinds of texts on one subject in the same school; and in the majority of schools the reader, arithmetic, and spelling-book were the principal texts in use. In those days the teaching fraternity were not kept informed even of the little

that was being done in the schoolbook world. The practice of sending out cepies for examination was almost, if not wholly, unknown. If a teacher warted to see a new book, he had to send away and buy

To-day the publishing of schoolbooks is conducted on very different lines. There is sharp competition among the various houses in securing good books. Great care is exercised and no expense spared in making them as perfect as possible. Generous royalties are offered in order that the highest talent may be secured. Publishers are not content to bring out a book just as it comes from the author's hand. The manuscript is passed upon by competent critics, and, if it is found wanting, either in subject-matter, form, or adaptability to the needs of the classroom, it is carefully revised. Large sums of money are often expended in perfecting a manuscript. Money is also spent freely in illustrating and manufacturing the schoolbook of to-day.

As soon as a book is published, it is sent out liberally to teachers and school officials and followed up by intelligent agents—usually college men. This, it will readily be seen, is a heavy expense. Indeed, the cost of putting a book upon the market is so great that there is no certainty of any profit accruing either to author or publisher until it has proved its wearing qualities in the schoolroom. It takes four or five years for a book that is used extensively to pay back the original investment; and unless it holds the market for another five years the profit on it is small.

Competition has been so sharp that publishers have vied with each other in sending out their books very liberally for examination. So long as they did not get back into the market, the publishers were justified, in a measure, in their liberality, for this method brings to the attention of teachers and school officials the latest and best educational thought as nothing else can. But a serious menace has arisen to this custom. Several firms have recently been established whose practice it is to correspond with and visit teachers and school officials for the purpose of buying from them the books which have been sent for examination. So freely have these examination copies been distributed that thousands of teachers have found themselves burdened with books which they could not use in their work, and which were consequently of little or no value to them. Moreover, this liberality on the part of the publishers has naturally given the impression to the teaching fraternity that the cost of these books is trifling; and they have thoughtlessly sold them into the market without realizing the injustice they were doing to both author and publisher. So successful have these firms been in their canvass that it often happens that, when an agent has secured a good adoption, the publisher does not sell a single copy of the book introduced. The order goes to the dealer, who is able to sell the books at a large discount and yet make a larger margin of profit than the publisher would expect to secure. Now, these books were given away as complimentary copies for examination in the first place, and so the author received no copyright. In the final sale they are handled by these dealers, who of course pay the author no royalty. Consequently the author is robbed of the reward of his labor and skill, and the pub-

lisher is deprived of his legitimate sales. It will thus be seen that the very liberality of the publisher has become one of his heaviest burdens.

Unless something can be done to discourage the practice of selling these examination copies, which has now assumed such large proportions, publishers cannot continue their present custom of sending out books so freely. Either the recipients must refuse to dispose of them or publishers must limit their number. From an intimate knowledge of teachers and school officials, extending over a period of more than forty years, it is my belief that, when this matter is once called to their attention, few. if any, in the entire length and breadth of this land, will, for the small profit accruing to them. do such grave injustice to author and publisher as this practice has been shown to be. EDWIN GINN.

BOSTON, May 11, 1905.

CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF THE MID-DLE WEST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

Sir: The meeting of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South, of which notice was given in your issue of April 4, took place in Mandel Hall, at the University of Chicago, upon the fth and 6th inst. The proportion of members present was large, the registered attendance being 167. Professor Pais of the University of Naples (now lecturing at the University o! Wisconsin) was kept away by temporary illness. Otherwise the papers were given as announced, namely : "Herodotus and the Oracle of Delphi," by Prof. Arthur "Herodotus and Fairbanks of the University of Iowa; "The Subjunctive in Consecutive Clauses," by Prof. J. J. Schlicher of the Indiana State Normal School, Terre Haute; "The General Linguistic Conditions of Grocce and Italy," by Prof. C. D. Buck of the University of Chicago; "The Present Imperative and the Aorist Subjunctive in Prohibition in Greek Dramatic Poetry," by Prof. J. A. Scott of Northwestern University; "Syllabification in Latin Inscriptions," by Prof. Walter Dennison of the University of Michigan, with a "Supplementary Note on Syllabification in Latin Manuscripts," by Prof. W. G. Hale of the University of Chicago; "Latin Composition in Secondary Schools," by Prof. B. L. D'Ooge of the State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich; "An Experiment in the Teaching of First and Second Year Latin," by Professor Hale; "The Present Status of the Leukas-Ithaka Question," by Prof. W. G. Manly of the University of Missouri; "Virgil's Epic Technique," by Prof. Gordon J. Laing of the University of Chicago; "Pompeil and St. Pierre," with lantern illustrations, by Prof. F. W. Kelsey of the University of Michigan.

On the evening of the first day, an address was delivered by Professor Shorey of the University of Chicago, upon "Philology and Classical Philology." The presiding officer was Prof. A. F. West of Princeton, who fortunately happened to be passing through Chicago at the time. At the conclusion of the address, a reception was given to the Association by the University of Chicago, in Hutchinson Hall. After the reception, a very successful "smoker," with informal addresses, was

held at the Quadrangle Club, with Professor West in the chair.

At the meeting of organization, held on the second morning, Prof. W. G. Manly of the University of Missouri, with whom the movement originated, was elected president for the coming year. Twenty-two vice-presidents were appointed, one from each of the States included in the territory of the Association. Of these officers, Prof. A. T. Walker of the University of Kansas was elected first vice-president. Professor D'Ooge was elected secretary and treasurer. An executive committee of five was also appointed.

The most important business before the organization was naturally the question whether it should offer itself as a branchmember to the American Philological Association, or should have a separate existence and a separate organ of publication. Before the meeting, there had been doubts on the part of a number of persens; but the strength of the movement was so apparent that, from the opening of the first session, so far as the writer is aware, opinion was unanimous that the organization must have an independent existence and an independent means of publication. It was also felt by every one that a single yearly volume containing the papers given at the meetings would not suffice, but that there must be a publication, appearing frequently and at regular intervals, which should afford a means for the active interchange of opinion. A resolution was therefore passed, without a dissenting voice, that the Association should publish a journal, to be issued in eight numbers of not less than twenty-four pages each, and to contain articles, reviews, notes, communications, and editorials, of a kind adapted to appeal to the teacher as such, in school or college. The offer of the University to guarantee this journal financially for a period of five years was accepted. The first number is expected to appear in January next. W. G. HALE.

Спіслео, Мау 15, 1905.

Notes.

The volume of Dr. Sandys's 'Harvard Lectures on the Revival of Learning,' to be published by Macmillan Co., will embrace 'Petrarch and Boccaccio,' "The Age of Discoveries," "The Academies of Florence, Venice, Naples, and Rome," "The History of Ciceronianism," and two other chapters, plus a seventh on "The Study of Greek," with a sketch of the European diffusion of the new learning. The same firm announces "The Foundations of Sociology,' by Prof. Edward A. Ross of the University of Nebraska.

A new volume of verse, 'From the Book of Valentines,' and another of prose essays, 'The Poetry of Life,' by Bliss Carman, are in the press of L. C. Page & Co., Boston.

The sum of \$300 will procure to subscribers a ten-volume collection of 'Portraits Russes des XVIIIc et XIXe Siècles' (Leipzig: Karl W. Hiersemann; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The text, in each case "a short biography, based upon careful historical researches," will apparently be supplied by the editor, the Grand Duke Nicolas Mikhailovitch, who draws upon his own private collection as well as from

other sources—in oil, water-color and gouache. The size is quarto. The publication will be in parts (volume one is already out), and will cover six years. The more than 2,000 portraits will be reproduced in phototype, and well reproduced, to judge from the specimen plates.

The publication, in twelve volumes octavo, of the Proceedings (Atti) of the International Congress of Historical Sciences, held at Rome in April, 1903, will soon be completed. The eminence of many of the contributors is so evident that our principal American libraries will presumably wish to procure complete sets of the work. Two volumes are devoted to history, and one each to the history of literatures, archæology, numismatics, fine arts, music and drama, jurisprudence, geography, philosophy and religions, and physical, mathematical, natural and medical sciences. An introductory volume will describe the Congress. The work is issued under the direction of the Italian Government, and may be subscribed for through the Libreria Loescher, 307 Corso Umberto I., Rome.

There lies before us a circular letter from the Committee for the Establishment of an American Section in the Municipal Library of Frankfort. "Being convinced that the dissemination of a more perfect knowledge concerning the political, social, economic, and intellectual life of the United States of America is urgently desired in Germany. and also that no German city is better fitted as a centre for such purpose than Frankfort-on-the-Main, situated as it is in the heart of Germany, a committee has been formed to accomplish this end." The proposed American Section of the Frankfort Library will be devoted more especially "to the philosophical, historical, judicial, political, industrial, commercial, and sociological literature of the United States." The activity of the committee will be directed towards two ends-first, towards the collection of a fund for the purchase of American literature, and, second, towards securing for the Library as gifts the publications of American governments, Federal, State, and municipal, educational and scientific institutions and associations, chambers of commerce, etc. The circular, which is signed by the chairman of the committee, Dr. Adickes, Mayor of Frankfort, points out that the Frankfort Library is open to every one, free of charge, and that its large reading-room is always accessible to the public. Mr. James Speyer of Speyer & Co., New York, represents the committee in this country.

Dr. Keltie, editor of the 'Statesman's Yearbook,' is able to make a brave showing of revision for the current forty-second annual issue (Macmillan). The Australian Commonwealth begins to take a statistical place in the matter of commerce; various articles furnish fresh information on the European Eastern question, about French colonial development, the Philippines, etc. Among the introductory tables is one of "important losses" in the first year of the Russo-Japanese war-meaning in ships only. Japanese reticence leaves several items debatable. The preliminary maps, grouped together, have, among the most interesting subjects, the army divisions of the United Kingdom; railroad schemes in the Near East, particularly the great lines projected to connect the Black and Caspian Seas with the Persian Guif; world areas of cotton-growing, and of wheat and meat supply for Great Britain—that of wheat being much the least in British possessions; and some boundary adjustments in South America, by treaty or arbitration, viz., between Brazil and British Guiana on the one hand and Bolivia on the other. From map and text together, we judge that the King of Italy's decision debarred Brazil from the Essequibo watershed for which she contended.

Anthologies of descriptions of places are not always satisfactory, because they are likely to be too scrappy or too unequal in style. But Miss Esther Singleton has, in 'Venice as Seen and Described by Famous Writers' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), made a book that is charming to read anywhere, and will be useful for travellers in Venice to consult. She has chosen nearly fifty pieces, written by authors from Dickens to Mr. Horatio Brown, and of such length that they do not lose their literary quality. By a logical arrangement, she has made these selections give in turn the general history of Venice, and describe its monuments, works of art, and environs. You visit the Rialto with Yriarte, the tombs of the Doges with Taine, the Grand Canal with Gautier, St. Mark'sand many other spots-with Ruskin. John Richard Green outlines for you the historic contrasts between Rome and Venice, or the place of Tintoretto among painters; J. A. Symonds describes Venice by night; Molmenti takes you to the patricians' palaces; Havard is your guide on the Campanilealas! now fallen. Clear half-tone views really illustrate this excellent compilation, in which alone are lacking citations from Mr. Howells, Mr. Norton, and some few other Americans, in order to be complete. The exigencies of copyright may have caused their exclusion.

The reflections of Mr. Charles H. Harvey in 'The Biology of British Politics' (London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners) do not go far to remedy what he alleges to be the great defect of politics-i. e., that it is still only an empirical art. The Darwinian theory was scarcely necessary to teach us that the success of a nation, as of an individual, largely depends on adaptation to environment, and Mr. Harvey's application of this doctrine to the present needs of the British Empire will appear to many readers a discovery of the obvious. Even an evolutionary philosopher, however, may light sometimes upon a mare's-nest, as when this writer finds that, owing to the increasing importance of the Pacific, "the long coast lines of the British Empire there will require, more than ever before, the absolute supremacy of the British navy." While it comes short of its professed aim, the book is of service to the student of politics, as giving a clear and convenient outline of the changes in international relations during the last century.

When the second edition of Sir George Trevelyan's 'History of the American Revolution' was noticed in these columns, we were not in a position to collate the original Part I. with the new Volume I. so as to pronounce on the revisions as mentioned by the author. This we have now done, and do not hesitate to say they have been performed in a truly careful and judicious manner. The sections have been broken up; the first chapter, which had been obviously written in continuation of the au-

thor's 'Life of Fox,' has had its contents transferred to more appropriate parts of the text, to an appendix, or to the notes. These two receptacles contain matter from other chapters of Part I., and have been enriched, as has the text, by many valuable illustrations, both lively and grave. A passage about George Selwyn appears to have been wisely sacrificed, while excellent pages on Burke and on Fox himself are new. The reference in the appendix to Franklin's use of the coat in which he stood Wedderburn's attack, is specially valuable; and many slighter touches, to which the author modestly asks attention, well deserve it. As our recent notice called attention to some uncorrected errors, it is only fair to say that many others in Part I. have been expelled.

The Geographical Society of Baltimore has set a notable example in the publication (through Macmillan) of a handsome quarto volume on 'The Bahama Islands,' edited by Dr. George Burbank Shattuck, head of the Society's expedition to the archipelagodispatched on June 1, 1903. The materials here elaborated were necessarily gathered in the brief space of five weeks, dependence being placed upon a sailing vessel. The work was well distributed among specialists adequately equipped with apparatus, and the result is a monograph of high and varied interest and general readability. The illustrations are numerous and admirable, often colored, and there is an abundance of maps and diagrams. The range is exhaustive, from the physiography of the islands to their history, "with a special study of the abolition of slavery in the colony"; from climate and magnetic observations and kiteexploration of the upper air to a discussion of the mosquitoes (a chapter quite novel to science); from fossils to tides and benchmarks, etc., etc. Some of the most beautiful plates are of floral vegetation and of gaudy fish. This survey will suffice to show the value of the report, which space forbids us to undertake to review. We will cite the remark that none of the fifteen species of mosquitoes collected were distinctively Bahamian, "All have a North American distribution," some a tropical. Dr. Howard is engaged upon a North and Central American and West Indian mosquito monograph under a grant from the Carnegie Institution.

In modern legal education, selections of cases play a leading part, and their name is legion. One of the latest which have reached us is Mr. Courtney Stanhope Kenny's 'Selection of Cases Illustrative of the English Law of Tort' (Cambridge [Eng.] University Press; New York: Macmillan). The author has lectured on this subject at Cambridge for ten years past, and is at home in his subject. His illustrations consist of only some two hundred cases on the law of tort, but by means of them Mr. Kenny manages to cover the whole ground, first giving the general principles (Liability -Liability as Affected by Status-General Exceptions to Liability-Remedies), and following this with the usual analysis of the various kinds of torts (Assault, False Imprisonment, etc.). The headnotes take the form of a running and concise exposition of the law. This method works better with some cases than with others. Thus, "An act otherwise lawful is usually not rendered a tort by its causing damage" (Holmes v. Mather, p. 1) is a concise and clear statement; the same can hardly be said of the

headnote prefixed to the well-known Mogul steamship case (p. 195). As a compendium the book is excellent.

Harrison Weir's 'Poultry Book,' which Doubleday, Page & Co. have been issuing in parts, is now gathered into three superb volumes, constituting the most impressive and important contribution to the subject of domestic fowl ever undertaken. The illustrations in color and in black and white, by Harrison Weir and others, reach a level of excellence that will remain the standard of comparison until some vastly superior process of pictorial reproduction is discovered. The topics treated cover every contingency and safeguard in the selection and breeding of domestic fowl, including pigeons. The work contains also a chapter on the rearing of pheasants, an industry destined before long to be of great importance; the propagation of this species for private preserves being yearly on the increase. The general use of the incubator has opened fresh possibilities to the amateur or professional breeder of domestic fowl. Even ostriches are now hatched in these machines. Pigeon eggs are exempt only for the reason that the young of that bird are fed upon predigested food supplied by the parent. The superiority of artificial over natural incubation is now no longer contested. The incubator, therefore, has become such a weighty factor in the poultry industry that 'The Poultry Book' has given the subject the attention it deserves. It is impossible to discriminate in the great mass of valuable information contained in these volumes, or to indicate where the treatment of one subject surpasses another in completeness. No detail, however minute, is omitted; even the general reader will find much in it to interest him.

In his Providence Book Notes for May, Mr. Rider carries back sixty years the first appearance in print of the word gavel in the sense of hammer, which is peculiar to the United States. Dr. Murray had to put up, for a definite quotation, with the Nation of 1866, though Worcester had caught the word. Mr. Rider has discovered it in a Masonic work, the 'Freemason's Monitor,' Providence, 1805 (p. 36): "The common gavel is an instrument made use of by operative masons to break off corners of rough stones," etc. The author, Thomas Smith Webb, proceeds to symbolize the tool for "free and accepted Masons." Its earliest assignment to a presiding officer must still be sought.

As one would not naturally look for etymologies in an appendix to the Report of the Commissioner of Fisheries for 1904, we will notice that the derivation of alewife is there discussed by Dr. Theodore Gill, in a sketch of the State Ichthyology of Massachusetts. In no carping spirit Dr. Gill takes up the derivations which Dr. Murray recorded without being satisfied with them, and summarizes his own contribution to the same subject in Notes and Queries. Instead of being American, he states that alewife is an old English name that still survives in southwestern England; it has for centuries been current with alose, alloices, allow, oldwife, etc.; but as to just how it was evolved, "further investigation is required," as Dr. Murray said.

Muscumskunde is the name of a new quarterly journal (Berlin: G. Reimer) devoted, as its name shows, to the interests of muscums and museum workers. The initial

article in the first number is a description of the Kaiser Friedrich Museum in Berlin, by its director, W. Bode. The Museum has recently been installed in a new building. and this gives Dr. Bode an occasion to remark on the fact that many large museum buildings, such as the Louvre, the National Gallery, the Old Pinakothek, have served as models for others, and to warn against attempts so to use the present building. The peculiar shape of the ground where it is built, and the particular character of many of its collections, presented problems which had to be solved in a somewhat unique way. The author aims to make clear these conditions. In another article, entitled "Das Nächstliegende," Dr. A. Lichtwark of Hamburg makes a plea for historical museums of local art. Mr. F. A. Bather, in discoursing on Museum Reports, asks why they are so dull? Mr. Bather acknowledges, of course, that some reports do afford really instructve reading for the working curator; they come, he says, chiefly from America. The journal contains the usual department of book reviews and notices, and, in addition to this, a list of articles selected from general scientific, chemical, and technical journals which offer something of interest to museum administrators; particular attention will be given to methods of conserving and to the work of the museum chemist.

At Rossleben, on the Franco-German border, a new pedagogical experiment is being made that is attracting considerable attention. As the result of an agreement by the French and the Prussian Governments, a young university graduate from France has taken a position in the German gymnasium at Rossleben, for the purpose of giving. without cost, practical instruction in his native language. In the same way a German philologian goes to a French secondary school designated by the French Government for the purpose of giving practical instruction in German. M. Maillet, Licencié of the Paris Sorbonne, is already at work in Rossleben. It is hoped to extend this international exchange of languages and

The Milan Exposition of 1906 is to improve on that at Turin in 1898 in one particular: it will attempt a still more impressive showing of the activity of three million Italians abroad. A retrospective survey of Italian greatness outside the peninsula, in every age and country, will also be furnished. The propaganda of the Dante Alighieri Society in and out of the kingdom will be conspicuously represented.

The first modern performance of Greene's tomantic comedy, "The Honourable Historie of Frier Bacon and Frier Bungay," was given at Champaign, on May 8, under the auspices of the English Club of the University of Illinois. At the same time appeared an acting version of the play, prepared by T. H. Guild and F. W. Scott of the department of Rhetoric and English respectively. In this version, which is based upon the text of the play in Gayley's 'Representative English Comedies,' the sixteen scenes of the original are divided into the conventional five acts, with two or three scenes in each act. The omissions, amounting to about a third of the whole, were dictated by considerations of modern taste, verbal clearness, and dramatic effect. Throughout, the editors have aimed at producing a version that would afford amusement to a modern audience without doing violence to the spirit of the original, and the evident pleasure with which the performance was followed was sufficient justification of the methods. The success of the magic scenes, which did not appear at all childish as one literary critic has characterized them, was pronounced; and, throughout, the figure of Bacon held the interest and sympathy of the spectators. It seems probable, after this highly successful first attempt, that Greene's charming play will be given a place among the pieces occasionally produced by amateurs, even though it may never be recognized on the professional stage.

-In the April-May number of the Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen are printed the regulations of the Bureau of information for the Libraries of Germany which was established recently as a kind of appendix to the Prussian Gesammtkatalog. While that catalogue represents only twelve of the largest libraries of the kingdom of Prussia, the Royal Library in Berlin and the eleven university libraries, the Bureau is the agent of not less than seventy-four libraries in all parts of the German Empire, and it is expected that many more will join in the near future. The purpose of the Bureau is to foster intercourse between libraries and students, more particularly to give an inquirer information as to where he might find a given book. The information is obtained either by ascertaining through the 'Gesammtkatalog' whether the book is to be found in any of the libraries represented by it, or, if not, by inquiring at that one of the other participating libraries in which it seems most reasonable to expect to find the book in question. Of the books whose whereabouts still remain to be ascertained. lists will be printed from time to time and sent to the various libraries. A charge is made of ten pfennigs for each title. This number of the periodical contains also the new statutes for the Royal Library. They contain many regulations which must seem antiquated to American librarians, especially the one that requires a request for a book to be sent in two hours in advance, and that full title and other particulars be given even when the call number of the book is known.

-Mr. Berenson's 'Lorenzo Lotto' (London: Bell; New York: Macmillan) appears the third time from the press, about ten years from the date of original issue. Meanwhile the main contention of the book, the reconstruction of the school of Alwise Vivarini, has been generally accepted, and the volume itself has gained through the discovery of new works and the swelling of the illustrations from thirty to sixtyfour. As in a former review, we doubt the application of the Morellian methods to portraits; and, so far as one may judge by reproductions, several of the portrait drawings and paintings attributed to the pervasive Alwise seem to us merely nondescript. The work, however, remains a model of systematic investigation in a field in which mere impressionism has often confused counsel, and we record with some regret a rather curious instance in which Mr. Berenson slips into the kind of offhand error his example has done so much to rebuke. Every lover of Lotto will remember the portrait, in Vienna, of a man in three aspects. Mr. Berenson admitted it tardily into the canon, characterizing it as an "interpretation of a commonplace,

prosperous person." When it is realized that Mr. Berenson's book proves abundantly that Lotto was neither prosperous nor commonplace, and that Mr. J. Kerr-Lawson, in the Burlington Magazine for March, has shown most ingeniously that the picture contains a rebus—a lotto box—which marks it as Lotto's portrait of himself, a sign-post of humility is set up for all critics. As a matter of fact, the portrait shows a man of the burly, yet sensitive, type of the late William Morris, whom it strikingly recalls.

-If we examine the 'International French-English and English-French Dictionary' published by Hinds, Noble & Eldredge, in this city, we learn from the title-page that the French pronunciation has been in charge of Prof. Paul Passy of the University of Paris; the English, of Prof. George Hempl of the University of Michigan. The preface is signed by Robert Morris Pierce. and dated New York. Before reading this. we may ascertain for ourselves that the one-volume work has been compactly designed; that it neglects etymology altogether; that it eschews definitions in favor of synonyms; that it records irregular inflections; that it always spells the word out in full in illustrative phrases (a very laudable practice); that a list of French-English proper names is intercalated between the French and English sections. page is in two broad columns, facilitating the assignment of a single line to a large proportion of the vocabulary. The full-face letter of the rubric contrasts well with the remainder of the text, which typographically leaves nothing to be desired. We could not of ourselves have found out that the conventional pronunciation marks are those of the International Phonetic Association, or that they will be employed in each of an ambitious series of dictionaries led off by the one before us. Nor might we have noticed the attention given 'to certain functional variants concomitant with changes of meaning or stress," which the editor believes to be "an important innovation in lexicography." No example is offered of these variants. One case of fluctuating stress, in survey (the noun), is unnoticed here.

-The volume has an engaging appearance; the synonyms are crisp; the illustrations are fresh-"se tromper de tramway," to take the wrong car: "il me faut une jeune dactylographe," I must have a young typewriter. Still, there is nothing to make one discard his Gase or his James and Molé, which are apt to be fuller, as one may discover under faire or falloir. Inaccuracies we have not observed, except that "esprit du corps" is set down (under esprit) concurrently with "esprit de corps," the true idiom. This phrase, we remark, appears under both its substantives, and so with "nom de guerre"; but this does not uniformly happen, e. g., "lait de chaux" is entered only under lait. The correlation between the two sections is, as in all dictionaries, imperfect, and one must, for example, turn to devil for supplementary phrases of diable. Again, "esprit de corps." under corps, is periphrastically equated with "common spirit pervading an association of men"; under esprit, with "corps spirit, brotherhood." But in the English portion neither brotherhood, corps, nor spirit leads up to the French expression. So pseudonym

has no reference to "nom de guerre," under which it occurs in the French portion. "Donner dans la vue" is "to strike the eye." Under eye we find vue, but not the phrase; nor under strike. We observe that the editor admits morale as the English equivalent of French moral (as of troops). Perhaps we might equally have expected "nom de plume" as our equivalent for "nom de guerre." Is it a scribe's error that gives, in the list of proper names, "Fernambouc" as well as "Pernambouc," for Pernambuco, under their respective initials?

-Vulcanologists and geologists generally will welcome the recently published report by M. Lacroix, chief of the French Scientific Commission to the Island of Martinique, of his observations on Pelée and the extraordinary phenomena which characterized the eruptions of 1902 and 1903. The stately volume, 'La Montagne Pelée et ses Éruptions' (Paris: Masson & Cie), published by the Academy of Sciences of Paris, covers practically the whole field of observation from the destruction of Saint-Pierre until near the close of the year 1904, and embodies the researches and conclusions of foreign investigators as well as those of the author and his associates. The unusual opportunities enjoyed by the French Commission, in its stay of over a year and a half on the island, for closely following the activities of the now famous volcano, particularly the phase of the making and unmaking of its great tower or obelisk, lend a special value to the report that has now been published, though the main facts contained in it have already been anticipated by the publications of the geologists of this country, as well as by Professor Lacroix himself in special reports addressed to the Académie des Sciences. As to the main facts connected with the eruption of May, 1902, and the destruction of Saint-Pierre, M. Lacroix is in accord with the views expressed by American observers generally, namely, that the annihilation of Saint-Pierre was brought about primarily as the result of an explosion of steam in the crateral part (Étang Sec) of the volcano, whose downward movement was initiated by a discharge taking place in that direction. The nuée ardente, as the destroying down-moving or down-rolling "black cloud" is called, was naturally charged with an extreme degree of heat; contained, in addition to the vapor of water, a number of gases in combination; and was in great part loaded with volcanic débris or ejecta. It was thus a veritable heat and gas tornado, whose impact few objects could withstand. Professor Lacroix believes that the velocity of this destroying blast could, at the time of its reaching Saint-Pierre, hardly have been less than 400-450 feet per second, and he is inclined to the belief that the destruction of the city of 25,000 inhabitants was brought about perhaps in hardly more than a fraction of a minute. In assuming that the destructive blast was directed downward as the result of explosive force, and that the death-dealing cloud did not reach Saint-Pierre in obedience to gravitational force. Lacroix confirms the views that have been advanced by the American observers as opposed to those of Drs. Flett and Tempest Anderson, representing the commission of the Royal Society of London. As regards the great monolith of rock which at the time of its greatest development rose upwards of a thousand feet above the summit of the dome (itself 1.600 feet high) reared over the ancient crater, Lacroix holds fundamentally to his original views of its construction, namely, that it was a great mass of highly viscous (acidic) lava that cooled and solidified during the very process of extrusion, and, as a result of this rapid solidification, was necessarily forced to take a vertical movement in place of the normal down-flow of lavas generally-a view that has been latterly contested by at least one geological observer. In addition to observations of a more general nature touching the phenomena of Pelée, Professor Lacroix's work contains a mass of important special studies, notably in petrography and the formation of quartzitic rocks. It is handsomely illustrated by a large number of heliographic plates.

-In. Japan, the literature springing directly out of the war with Russia has been chiefly of a popular and ephemeral sort, although some of the poetry consists of more than the thirty-one syllable verselets. A few of the nagai-uta, or long poems, are well worth translating. Probably the most serious monograph is 'Senji Sobo Kigen,' or Words in Time of War-or, freely translated, Unpalatable Warnings in War Time, from a Poor Student Dwelling under a Thatched Roof. The author is Nishi Sawanosuke (Tokio: The Taiyosha, publishers), and his matter, in eight chapters, is infused with Shintoism at a high temperature, though his high appreciation of woman -so rare in Japanese literature-betrays the modern spirit of the new Japan. Unless we mistake, we are reading the message of the co-worker with Fukuzawa in the famous Mei Roku Sha (Society of the Sixth Year of Meiji [1874]), which has so powerfully affected the course of national education in Japan. In chapter i. he affirms the purpose of the war to be the protection of the Japanese and humanity, and the guarantee of international peace. This is to be sought in the development of industry, in international law, and in higher ethical teaching. The mission of Japan is to advance humanity in the world. Success is assured by the character of the people of Nippon, their morals and religion. Other religious and ethical systems are factitious and irrational. Japan has the morality of Heaven-real, natural, a perfect union of politics and religion in loyalty and filial piety. The punishment of perfidious Russia is Japan's duty. The Slav is the enemy of civilization in that he destroys the moral unity of the world. The story of Russia's seizure of Saghalien and of Tsushima is told vividly and in detail. Japan expects final and complete victory, but, to secure this, industry, finance, economics, must be carefully looked to. The author opposes all peace talk, for the work of the war, if not thoroughly consummated now, must be done over again in fresh blood. He then outlines peace terms which in substance mean the blotting out of Russia in the eastern half of Asia. He expects a long continuation of the war. If England in the Napoleonic era, with tweive million people, spent four billions of dollars to save Europe, why should not Japan persevere? In conclusion, he shows the defects of education in Japan as being too materialistic, and demands that the male teachers go to the front as soldiers and

leave education to women, who are by nature the better instructors of youth. Summing up the work, we hear, through the blast of a Shinto trumpet, a tremendous indictment of the Education Department. with its corruption already made public and its pedagogic spirit so faulty in the Shintoistic view. In his high praise of woman and his close parallel drawn between the early Japanese and the primitive Hebrew spirit, we have proof that Shinto propagandists, like Christian men of polemic mind, read into old scriptures what impartial students of the archaic documents cannot find. The whole work in temper contrasts notably with Dr Asakawa's work on the Russo-Japanese war, already reviewed in these columns: the latter's being the view most in accord with cool judgment

COVENTRY PATMORE.

Coventry Patmore. By Edmund Gosse. (Literary Lives Series.) Charles Scribner's Sons.

Coventry Patmore was born in 1823 at Woodford in Essex. His father, Peter Patmore, himself a man of letters, had gained an unpleasant notoriety as second in a duel between John Scott, the editor, and Lockhart's friend Christie. These duels of literary men were generally bloodlesswith Moore on two occasions they ended in a warm friendship, his opponent being unable to withstand the poet's fascinations at such short range; but the elder Patmore, in a moment of unaccountable bloodthirstiness, insisted that his principal should make no concessions, with the result that Scott was mortally wounded. Peter Patmore was dropped by his literary friends, and the blot on his father's name and the isolation of his family had a decided effect on the youth of the poet.

For his early life Mr. Gosse had to depend on the poet's reminiscences. Now Fatmore's memory was of the imaginative type with which we are all familiar. "His memory amplified quantities before they could reach his lips in words," says Mr. Gosse. He was, in fact, subject to megalomania, which is no more lying than kleptomania is stealing. When a mature person of this disposition tells us that he was an agnostic until the age of eleven, and at nine was "Love's willing page," we know that his imagination has got the better of his memory. But Coventry Patmore must have been a strange, precocious, self-centred child, spoiled by his father, who from the first treated him as a budding genius, snubbed by his mother, a severe Scotchwoman, who resented this claim and to the last refused to look at her son's poems. This is how Peter Patmore describes his son at twenty:

"See! his lithe, fragile form is bending over a book that is spread open on his knees, his head drooping towards it like a plucked flower. The pale face is resting on the clasped hand, over which, and all round the small, exquisitely modelled head, fall heavy waves of auburn hair, concealing all but one pale cheek—pale and cold as marble, but smooth and soft as a girl's."

On reading this, one is inclined to sympathize with Coventry's mother, and to forgive the more normal British parent's profound distrust of the artistic temperament. Patmore was spared the university, and, after a desultory education and a residence in France, settled down in London to the literary life. His first volume of poems (1844) shows the influence of Tennyson in such a stanza as this from "Tamerton Church Tower":

"Ere summer's prime that year the wasp. Lay gorged within the peach; The tide, as though the sea did gasp, Fell lax upon the beach";

and there are clear imitations of the manner of Elizabeth Barrett, with whom Patmore had much in common. Mr. Gosse quotes from an unpublished letter of Browning: "A very interesting young poet has blushed into bloom this season." Patmore's welcome came chiefly from poets; the critics detected the influence of Keats and would have none of him. About this time his father withdrew to the Continent, and Coventry was told that he must for the first time support himself. Tennyson was his intimate friend, and they used to wander through London together. Patmore follow ing the elder poet "like a dog" as he would say of himself with scorn in the later years of their estrangement. He was in a fair way to starve when Monckton Milnes secured him the post of assistant in the Library of the British Museum. When, in 1864, his second marriage with a woman of fortune enabled him to leave the Museum, he was, as an obituary note expressed it, "in a fair way to become Keeper of the Printed Books."

In 1847 he married a woman who was almost worshipped for her beauty in the circle of young pre-Raphaelites with whom her husband was intimate. Woolner made a medailion of Emily Patmore's head; Millais in 1851 painted her portrait; and finally Browning immortalized her beauty in a famous poem. It was admitted that when she laughed her charm was eclipsed, and the fact had not escaped Browning:

"If one could have that little head of hers Painted upon a background of pale gold Such as the Tuscan's early art prefers, No shade encroaching on the matchless mould Of those two lips, which should be opening soft In the pure profile; not as when she laughs, For that spoils all . . ."

No wonder that when he had won this beautiful wife, Patmore himself determined to compose a poem in her honor, 'The Angel in the House.' Meanwhile he had contributed some poems to the pre-Raphaelite organ, the Germ, and had published a secand volume called 'Tamerton Church-Tower' (1853). At this time Tennyson, the Brownings, and Matthew Arnold had produced or were producing their best work. Patmore had dreamed for years of a great poem consecrated to marriage before, in 1854, he published the first part of 'The Angel in the House.' It was like him to say at the start that he meant to make it "bigger than the 'Divina Commedia.' " Tennyson, in an unpublished letter to Aubrey de Vere, said that, "when finished, it will add one more to the small list of Great Poems." It is at any rate safe to say that few long English poems have been so eagerly read by the crowd. When in 1887 it was issued at threepence, a million copies were quickly sold, and it is still in great demand. It has never had any such vogue in this country, where the apotheosis of the home and of woman in her purely domestic aspect fails to secure the instant response that it meets from every Englishman. Here is a real international difference. Put it down if you will to the unfailing British appetite for the sentimental, the appetite that was fed by Tennyson's 'May-Queen' and 'Dora' and a good deal of Wordsworth. At any rate the 'Angel in the House' could have been written only by an English poet; and, mutatis mutandis, such a poem would have a fair chance of a similar success today. The modern poet would not frankly tell the story, as Patmore does; he would compose a sonnet sequence, but the English ideal has not changed, and we doubt if it ever will.

The 'Angel in the House' is a narrative poem of middle-Victorian manners. The hero is just such a young man as Trollope delighted to describe, and his love story reads like a few chapters of Trollope put into verse. The setting of the courtship, the clothes of the young people, the food they ate, the trains they took, the parties they gave, the chairs they sat on—Patmore lets you have it all. His generation welcomed that sort of verse, and liked Patmore's lines on the furniture of the Deaners, the

"Dim rich lustre of old oak
And crimson velvet's glowing gloom,"

as it liked Tennyson's-

"She left the novel half uncut Upon the rosewood shelf; She left the new piano shut, She could not please herself."

Or this, by another popular poet of the day:

"Lady Anne Dewhurst on a crimson couch Lay, with a rug of sable o'er her knees, In a bright boudoir in Belgravia."

There were fewer novels in those days. and poetry must serve both its own purpose and the purposes of fiction. This sort of poetry has been labelled by Mr. Stedman, in his 'Victorian Anthology,' the "Composite Idyllic," and that is perhaps as near as one can get to a definition. It would be unfair to Patmore to dwell on the glaring faults of taste, the lack of humor, that mar his longest work. That there are in it touches of genuine poetry, moments in which the poet rises above the bourgeois comforts of the deanery, no reader of the poem can deny. Carlyle called one section of it, "The Espousals," a "beautiful little piece; high, ingenious, fine, managed with great art, thrift, and success," while Landor wrote: "Never was anything more tender." Yet the true admirer of Patmore bases his admiration on the later poems in the volume called 'The Unknown Eros,' published in 1877. The Eros whom he had celebrated in 'The Angel in the House' was certainly not "unknown." In the later volume the mysticism that was so strong an element in his temperament is given full play.

He had entered the Roman Catholic communion in 1864, after the death of his first wife, and remained for the rest of his long life in the closest sympathy with the doctrines of the Catholic Church. His second marriage, with a Catholic lady of considerable fortune, transformed him into a landed proprietor, and he proved by his admirable management of the estate in Sussex that a poet can be an excellent man of business. Patmore made his estate pay, and, a few years after its purchase, sold it at a profit—a rare achievement for an English landed proprietor. He spent his last years at Hastings, where he built a

Catholic chapel, and at Lymington in Hampshire, where he died in 1896, in his seventy-fourth year. His portrait, painted by Sargent in 1894, is now in the National Portrait Gallery in London. Patmore sat to Sargent for the prophet Ezekiel in the decorations of the Boston Library and for a second portrait, so that there is no danger that his strange, inspired head and attenuated figure, with what Mr. Gosse calls "its aspect of a wild crane in the wilderness," will be forgotten. In the 'Oxford Book of English Verse' are three of the best of Patmore's short poems-"The Toys," "If I Were Dead," and "Departure." But if we wanted to convert the skeptic to the admission that Patmore is not to be judged by his apotheosis of "honorable domesticity," we should ask him to read first the ode "Azalea," which we quote in full:

"There, where the sun shines first

Against our room, She trained the gold Azalea, whose perfume She, Spring-like, from her breathing grace dis-

Last night the delicate crests of saffron bloom, For that their dainty likeness watch'd and nursed, Were just at point to burst.

At dawn I dream'd, O God, that she was dead, And groam'd aloud upon my wretched bed, And waked, ah, God! and did not waken her, But lay, with eyes still closed, Perfectly bless'd in the delicious sphere

By which I knew so well that she was near, My heart to speechless thankfulness composed, Till 'gan to stir

A dizzy somewhat in my troubled head—
I two the azalea's breath, and she was dead!
The warm night had the lingering buds disclosed,
And I had fallen asleep with to my breast
A chance-found letter press'd,
In which she said,

'So, till to-morrow eve, my Own, adleu! Parting's well paid with 'soon again to meet,' Soon in your arms to feel so small and sweet, Sweet to myself that am so sweet to you."

Mr. Gosse was the intimate friend of Patmore, and, as intimate friends feel that duty demands, he has drawn the poet's portrait with an unflattering pen. But, while he does not spare the folbles and eccentricities of Patmore, he writes with a genuine appreciation of his much misunderstood genius; and though he says too little about Patmore's progessays, which have singular merits of style, his attractive little volume, with its excellent illustrations, can be recommended to all to whom the more exhaustive Life by Mr. Champneys is not accessible.

LOW'S GOVERNANCE OF ENGLAND.

The Governance of England. By Sidney Low. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1904.

To a student unfamiliar with the subject, this book must be altogether charming, and it may be read with pleasure by those to whom its contents are not novel. The author has a graceful and flexible style, an instrument polished by incessant use, and so deftly wielded as to convey the impression that such mastery of expository art must be supported by corresponding wisdom. No doubt, much of what he says has been said before: many of his statements are wellworn platitudes. But it is impossible, nowadays, to write of anything of consequence without saying what has been said before, and it is always possible to detect new shades of meaning in texts that have been expounded numberless times.

But Mr. Low attempts more than this. An account of the government of England. he says, must be like the picture of a living person:

"If you want to see exactly how the original appears, you do not refer to a photograph taken twenty or thirty years ago. The features may be the same, but their expression, their proportion, and their whole character, have changed. In the interval between one examination of our public polity and another, the formal part may not have greatly altered, but the conventional, the organic, working, portion has been modified in all sorts of ways."

It may be said that since the subject has been handled by such writers as Hearn, Todd, Bagehot, and Dicey, so well equipped, so learned, and so able, there can be no necessity to deal with any part of it again; but those men wrote long ago—Mr. Low does not include in his list Mr. Courtney's recent 'Working ConstMution'—and many things have happened in the interval. Their portraits were faithful when taken, but the subject has changed so much that it is time for him to sit again. Bagehot showed that the "literary" theory of the Constitution did not correspond with the facts of his day; but

"Bagehot's ideas, sound and logical as they are in the main, as an explanation of the 'rough practice' which prevailed when Lord Palmerston was in office, have themselves crystallized into something like a 'literary theory.'

We cannot take the speculations and inferences of the critics belonging to the great middle-class era of English Constitutional history as if they were of pontifical authority for the present day."

The prospect thus opened before us is undeniably interesting. When Bagehot died, Mr. Birrell has declared, "he carried away into the next world more originality of thought than is now to be found in the Three Estates of the Realm." Nor was he more remarkable for penetration than for the persuasiveness with which he presented his views. Those who listened to him could not resist the conviction that he understood the nature of government because he understood human nature. He saw that rulers were but men of like passions with their subjects, and that governments were carried on as other affairs are carried on where action depends on the concurrence of a number of minds. He drew his conclusions from his experience: from his observation of the permanence and universality of certain traits in mankind from which their conduct may in general be predicted. It does not require genius to describe the superficial changes that take place in government: but whoever aspires to be Bagehot's successor, must possess rare powers of historical judgment, and profound knowledge of his fellow-creatures.

We do not think that Mr. Low is quite equal to the requirements of his undertaking, and shall point out as clearly as our space permits some of the respects in which his analysis appears to us deficient. The Cabinet system, he impressively assures us, might be deemed, did we not know it to exist, the nightmare of a satirist, the burlesque of an Aristophanes or a Rabelais. The reasons for this view are that the laws of the country are made by a "big, miscellaneous public meeting," that they are carried out by the nominees of the majority of this meeting, subject to the opposition of the minority, and in a manner offensive to a large minority of the people, and that these nominees agree in secret on the policy which they shall accept responsibility for as a body. This sounds portentous enough; but when we recover our self-possession we begin to think that Mr. Low is himself the victim of the nightmare. For what he describes is nothing but the normal and necessary course of events when action is to be taken by a very large number of people. Unless they are ruled by an absolute despot, they must be ruled by a public meeting; and unless anarchy is to prevail in this meeting, the will of the majority must be decisive. Moreover, this majority must have leaders of its own choice-else they will not be leaders-and they must agree on their policy, or they will very soon have no followers. It may seem very astonishing that one human being should yield his will to that of another, but it is the essential condition of united action, whether it be of a baseball club or of the British Parliament, and it is as unavoidable as that if two men ride a horse, one must ride behind. It is not a nightmare, but a mare's nest, that Mr. Low has discovered.

That the Cabinet is a secret committee greatly astonishes Mr. Low. Why, herein is a wonderful thing, he exclaims, that the gravest concerns of a people should be decided under the cloak of an impenetrable darkness. The Cabinet ought to elect a chairman and a secretary, meet on fixed days, and keep minutes of its proceedings, and perhaps, we may add, admit reporters to its deliberations. Not in this way, we venture to observe, are the gravest concerns of a nation or of any great corporation decided. At the present moment, how much do the stockholders of the Union Pacific Railway and the New York Central know of the designs of the men that decide on their concerns? What trace of these designs, until they are ready for publication appears in the minutes of the directors meetings? How much of these designs have such of the directors as know anything of them learned at such meetings? According to a vulgar saying, we do not go duck hunting with a brass band; and the men who determine the business policy of the Steel Company, or the Oil Company, or the Sugar Company, form their plans without directors' meetings and their secretaries and minute-books. Who is so guileless as to suppose that the leaders of the Republican party do not secretly agree on the policy which shall be formally adopted by their followers in Congress? Who does not know that the Assemblymen at Albany and the Aldermen in New York adopt measures conceived with even more secrecy and informality than those of the British Cabinet? Military leaders do not explain their movements to the world before they carry them out, and it may be laid down as a universal law that, in the conduct of business affairs and of government, measures that will be resisted by opponents are not publicly announced until after they have been privately considered by those who will be held responsible for their execution.

It is a "curious fact," according to Mr. Low, that nearly one-half the legislators are not legislators at all. "They can neither make laws nor prevent laws being made." It would certainly be a curious fact, as it is a curious fancy, that the minority should rule the majority. But while it is true that members are elected as representatives of party, they are by no means so unchanging in their fealty as Mr. Low represents. Nothing is more impressive, in Mr. Morley's

Life of Gladstone, than the proofs afforded of the unsubstantial nature of the foundation on which cabinets rest. Many measures were abandoned because certain members of the Cabinet would not support them; many were dropped because it was known that members of the majority would oppose them. Mr. Low would have us believe that the Cabinet has become very despotic-that it is only necessary for it to command and for the majority to obey. He actually asserts that the ministerialist member outside the Ministry itself "is not consulted, any more than the members of the Opposition, on bills which ministers propose to introduce; he sees them only when they come from the printers; and then he knows that, whether he likes them or not, he will be expected to support them by his vote in the lobbies." We can only reply with the counter assertion that a ministry which attempted to legislate without making sure of party support, which brought in bills offensive to the party and about which its members had not been consulted, would very soon come to grief. Mr. Gladstone's career is a long commentary on the necessity of constant touch between ministers and their followers. A ministry may sometimes insist on measures which are not liked by the party, but it will do so only for imperative reasons. The manner in which the great Conservative majority in the present Parliament has melted away, affords proof enough that Mr. Low's statements are too sweeping.

We might mention other particulars in which Mr. Low's attempts at originality do not appear successful, but in most of his book he prudently follows the beaten track. He can quote many eminent men as saying that things have altered for the worse in Parliament, and some who shake their heads and say that they do not know what the country is coming to. There is truth in such sayings, and they are always listened to with interest when they are supported by reason and experience. Mr. Low understands well how to use such material; and, as we have said, his book is extremely readable. The style, however, is rather more suitable for the columns of a journal or the pages of a magazine than for a serious treatise. There are many clever and some acute observations in the book; but, in our judgment, the view given of the English Constitution is superficial, and in some cases erroneous.

The Golden Age of Classic Christian Art.

By Jean Paul Richter and A. Cameron
Taylor. London: Duckworth & Co.

Under an ample title and in an ample volume of 427 pages, the authors of this work have presented to us the results of a most careful study of the mosaics of the nave and of the arch in the Church of S. Maria Maggiore in Rome. As we turn their interesting pages we may readily see why they decided upon a title which does not exactly indicate the contents of the volume. To them monumental Christian art is best represented by mosaics, which adorn a few great churches; and the most important example is the detailed series of Biblical pictures preserved in S. Maria Maggiore. Hence a study of those mosaics is a study of the golden age of Christian art. We are tempted to criticise the deduction and the title on the ground of logical exactness, but we are bound to say that, if we accept the conclusions reached by the authors, their contention is largely justified. The object of the book is declared to be "an attempt to appreciate a large and homogeneous group of classic pictures from the point of view of art, archæology, and theology, from each of which aspects they are of unique value."

This is a modest statement in view of what is actually accomplished, for Dr. Richter and Miss Taylor have further, as a result of most painstaking study and clear reasoning, apparently established theories as to the date and character of these mosaics not hitherto accepted. De Rossi, in his 'Mosaici di S. Maria Maggiore,' and Ainaloff, in his scholarly 'Mosaiken der vierten und fünften Jahrunderts,' have ascribed these pictures to the fifth century. relying upon the inscription at the summit of the arch, "Xystus Episcopus plebi dei." referring to Sixtus III. (432-440). These pictures have also been generally accepted as examples of continuous historical series, similar to the illustrations of the Vienna Genesis and the Joshua Roll. Such views, however, are not compatible with historical and stylistic considerations based on a detailed examination of the pictures. chronological sequence of events is not found here; each scene does not represent an historical event; hence the purpose is didactic and not historical. If the art of this scene is didactic, and therefore intellectual, we must look for its literary parallel, and this is not found in the writings of St. Augustine or Jerome of the fourth or fifth centuries, but is rather reflected in the theological writings of the apologists of the second and third centuries. Stylistic peculiarities point the same way, for, if these mosaics are compared with monumental art, they are seen to belong to the period of the reliefs of the column of Marcus Aurelius and of the arch of Septimius Severus. They show the same well-proportioned figures, "firmly knit, classic in type." 'complete in themselves both in action and interest, standing firmly and moving freely, not conceived frontally," as are the figures in the mosaics of S. Vitale and SS. Cosma and Damiano.

If the style and subject-matter of these pictures point to the second and third centuries as the date of their origin, what shall we say of the inscription of Xystus? It may be shown that Xystus's activity in the basilica was confined to the restoration and renaming of it, and possibly to a renewal of the preëxisting mosaics. Roof tiles and the masonry of the nave belong to the second century, and indicate a construction earlier than the time of Xystus. The subject-matter of the mosaics is drawn from apochryphal sources condemned before his time, and we cannot therefore attribute them to this Pope. In view of these facts, and from statements in the 'Gesta Liberii' and the 'Liber Pontificalis,' and in Christian writers of the fourth century, we may believe that the original building was the secular Basilica Sicinini which stood on the Esquiline. To this, Pope Liberius added an apse, thereby associating his name with the building, and, finally, Pope Xystus III. restored the structure and its interior, placing his inscription in the midst of the mosaics in such a way as to cut off the right foot of St.

Peter and the left foot of St. Paul. It would seem, then, that these mosaics belonged to the original basilica, which may have formed part of the palace of a wealthy convert who ornamented the building with decorations of a Christian character. As the figures in the lower pictures of the arch are crowded together, so as to accommodate the original in the gradually diminishing space, it is evident that they have been made after designs not originally intended for the space they occupy, but are copies of compositions of about the same date.

This, in brief, is the line of argument followed, and convincingly. The deductions are remarkable, for we must now modify our view as to the character of the Christian community of the Rome of the Antonines, and must also be willing to believe that such pictures survived the persecutions of Diocletian. It is helpful to know that modern historians, Zahn ir Skizzen aus dem Leben der alten Kirche,' and Harnack in 'Die Mission und Ausbreitung des Christentums.' have been insisting that the popular conception as to the condition of the early Church should be greatly modifled. On the side of art our author's theories are no less remarkable. If these compositions were neither conceived nor executed in a period of decadence, if they were untouched by Byzantinism, they must be in the direct succession from the classic pictorial art, and must form a most important link between early imperial art and that of the fourth and fifth centuries. "They reflect a noble phase of early Christian thought which has hitherto been believed to have passed away without having received definite art embodiment."

This book, then, has a place as a supplement to the epoch-making essay of Franz Wickhoff on the illuminated Genesis of the Imperial Library of Vienna, which has done so much to dignify Roman art. It serves also as a companion volume to the monumental work of Mons. J. Wilpert, 'Le Pitture delle Catacombe Romane.' The contents are arranged in two parts, the first of which is assigned to the prototypical decorations of the nave, the second to the antitypical decorations of the triumphal arch. There is a general introduction, and, at the close, appendices, containing summaries of the views of De Rossi and Ainaloff, and chronological tables. The style is most pleasing, not at all wearisome, and the treatment is calculated to awaken the interest of the reader as to the final deductions. A curious division of the text into sections denoted by Roman numerals is at times distracting, and is based apparently on no definite plan. The illustrations are in the main very satisfactory, particularly the colored plates reproducing the mosaics. Others are from the 'Storia dell' Arte Cristiana' (vol. v.) of Garucci, and from 'Le Pitture delle Catacombe Romane' of Wilpert. As many of these are placed side by side on the same page, there is much opportunity for comparative study. We can hardly appreciate the difficulties attendant upon a study of mosaics placed above the architrave and over the high altar of a church in which the ritual is daily celebrated. It was necessary to view them from temporary scaffolding or from a cage which was let down from the ceiling. Dr. Richter and Miss Taylor deserve the highest commendation for the thoroughness with which they have accomplished their task.

English Estate Forestry. By A. C. Forbes, F.H.A.S., Lecturer on Forestry at Durham College of Science, Newcastle-on-Tyne. London: Edward Arnold: New York: Longmans. 1904.

This is a timely publication. In these latter days, when attention is being seriously directed to the general subject of forestry, there is pressing need that the work of the forester should be examined in all its aspects. The present volume is devoted to a consideration of the training and duties of a forester on a private estate. To the American the last chapter, entitled "The English Forester," is the most important. In the compass of a few pages, Mr. Forbes states his views clearly as to the desirable education for a practical caretaker in an English forest, and, with very little change, the whole matter can be safely and usefully applied to private estates in the United States and Canada. It is not easy to condense into fewer lines the excellent advice which is given by Mr. Forbes on pages 324 and 325:

"The man intended to occupy a post on a "The man intended to occupy a post on a large estate needs a more thorough and lengthened training than one who simply aims at filling the post of a working woodman or foreman on a small estate, or where the area of woodland is limited. In the former case the aspirant to a forestry appointment must not only have a fairly good general education, but should be more or general education, but should be more or less conversant with the elements of science and art. Botany, chemistry, geology, zoology, land surveying, and bookkeeping are all more or less important items in the education of such a man, although it is not necessary for him to be an expert in any one of them. But as regards sylviculture, or the planting, tending, and felling of woods and selling of timber, he should claim a considerable degree of expertness before he can consider himself a qualified forester. "How can these qualifications be best ac-

"How can these qualifications be best acquired? We will suppose that the intending "How can these qualifications be best acquired? We will suppose that the intending forester leaves school at the age of fifteen or sixteen, by which time he is fairly well up in most branches of general education. The first step he should then take must be of a practical nature. . . The first step in his career, therefore, should be that of obtaining a footing on a large and well-wooded estate, if such can be found within reach of his paternal home. On such an estate, nursery-work, planting, cleaning of young plantations, the burning of rubbish, the tending of rides, roads, drains, and so on, are continually going on, and a strong healthy lad should be quite capable of taking his share in such work. He may, at this stage of his career, receive much benefit from a little theoretical coaching from the forester under whom he is employed, assuming that that individual is capable of giving it. By the time he is seventeen or eighteen he should become acquainted with the use of the axe, saw, handbill, and any where the steels weather. the use of the axe, saw, handbill, and any other tools used in woods or woodwork. He should also get an insight into the measuring of timber, the setting out of drains, the principles of road construction, the theory of forming plantations, and the thinning of woods—all of which he can pick up with the aid of ordinary intelligence and obser-

After undergoing a training of this kind until he is eighteen or nineteen years of age, he should be able to judge as to his fondness for the work or otherwise. If the fondness for the work or otherwise. If the work goes against the grain, he had better, to use a common expression, 'chuck it up' at to use a common expression, 'chuck it up' at once, for English forestry does not make capitalists, Trust directors, or any positions of that kind. But if his occupation is as much a source of pleasure as a provider of drudgery or hard work, he will, in all probability, find the life has other advantages than can be seen on the surface, or which are apparent to the outsider. The phases of the various seasons, the natural phenomof the various seasons, the natural phenomena which are constantly cropping up before his eyes, and the observations on trees, plants, birds, insects, and all forms of life

generally, will convert him into a naturalist, which will compensate him for the ist, which will compensate him for the loss of many advantages he might derive from following other walks in life. If, then, he feels that the work satisfies all those ambitions he is likely to acquire in the course of life, he may take it for granted that English forestry is the right occupation for him.

'Now comes a period during which he ought to acquire touch with those sciences which have already been referred to. To do this, he cannot do better than attend one of those centres, in various parts of England, at which these sciences are taught with more or less thoroughness. The choice of such a centre should be guided by the fa-cilities it also affords for attending a course of lectures on advanced forestry. At the present time there are at least two or three such centres in England or Scotland, and a six or twelve months' course at one of these will prove of inestimable advantage

to him in after-life.

The opportunities which such a course presents of visiting other parts of the country in which woods are numerous or well managed, should not be missed, and it may be of advantage if this can be associated with employment in a public nursery, where planting contracts are being under-taken, which affords facilities for travelling about. By working in a nursery he can get an insight into the practical side of raising and propagating trees and shrubs from seeds and cuttings. Such nurseries are also good training-grounds in the direction of forest botany, the extensive collection of trees and shrubs grown within their boundaries, and the necessity of naming or recognizing the various species in the course of their working, enabling one to recognize them at a glance-in their young stage,

at any rate.
"By the time he is twenty-one he should be capable of taking a foreman's situation on a small estate, or working as an assist-

ant forester on a large one.

We offer no apology for giving these long extracts, for we do not remember to have met such sound advice relative to practical forestry in such compact form.

In the United States there are to be a few desirable positions of great usefulness in connection with the forests on private estates and on the lands held by clubs. There are doubtless to be also a few excellent and responsible offices connected with the profitable exploiting of paper-pulp territory. For such places the hints given in Mr. Forbes's sound work will well serve, although they were designed for a totally different latitude and longitude. Training for the positions under the Government is well cared for in our forest schools as at present constituted, but we think that many of the students there may advantageously study the suggestions given in 'English Estate Forestry.'

Studies in Biblical Law. By Harold M. Wiener, of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-atlaw. London: David Nutt. 1904.

This is a small book-aside from preface and indexes, only 124 large octavo pages, much of it taken up with quotations from the Bible and from the higher critics, whom the writer combats; but it is bold and refreshing. After the Torah (Pentateuch) had for over two thousand years been venerated as the Law of Moses, when to deny the authorship of the Son of Amram was deemed treason and blasphemy by both Jew and Christian, De Wette, Kuenen, and Wellhausen arose to separate the Pentateuch into layers, labelled J. (Jehovist) and E. (Elohist) and D. (Deuteronomy) and H. (Holiness) and P. (Priestly Code), besides the Book of the Covenant (Ex. XXI.-

XXIII.), and besides the additions of the supposed redactor; and in the eyes of the "critical" world to contradict the Leyden School of Critics was deemed as impious as formerly it had been to deny the authorship of Moses. Now comes a young man, not a theologian, but a lawyer, and, to judge from his name, a Jew, who stands up for the greatest of lawgivers and for the highest glory of his own race, the Torah, and who throws down the gauntlet fearlessly to the higher critics. He deals with the Torah only as far as it teaches juridical law, rules of conduct between man and man, such as can be enforced by the judges; not with ceremonial law, nor with the narrative, miraculous or other. He shows that none of the higher critics have been lawyers, none of them trained in the art of weighing evidence, none of them acquainted, through their daily calling, with statutes such as they arbitrarily threw hither and thither, assigning them, as the whim struck them, to this or that period.

The writer dedicates his work to "Those who have lived and died for the Torah." He winds up by quoting from it (Deut. iv. 5-8) a passage which fills the heart of the faithful Israelite with joy and pride. Thus he does not approach his task with cold impartiality, but with the fervor of the champion. He is not ashamed to show his love and admiration for the heritage of Israel.

For his foil, the writer has chosen two late English works which best represent the conclusions of the higher criticism, the Hexateuch, arranged by the Society of Historical Theology, Oxford (Longmans, Green & Co., 1900), and Dr. Driver's Commentary on Deuteronomy; he goes back, however, to Robertson Smith wherever this scholar is relied on by the authors of these more recent works. The view of the higher critics is, broadly speaking, this: The Book of the Covenant was the oldest part of the Law of Israel; after it came a combination denoted by them as J. E.; after that, in the days of King Josiah, Deuteronomy was written; then followed the Book of Holiness, which contains, however, older material; next the rest of the Priestly Code, in which the 'Holiness' is imbedded as a part; and these successive systems of law flowed from the needs, feelings, and stages of culture of the times in which they grew up and were put forth. As an illustration of these diversities, the 'Hexateuch' takes up the rules for Hebrew bondmen and bondwomen in Ex. xxi., in Lev. xxv., and in Deut. xv., and points out that such contradictory systems could not have been set up within the forty years of the wanderings in the wilderness. Our writer shows that the first and the second of these chapters deal with men and women sold into servitude under different conditions, and he strengthens his position by showing the problems which arose in the early days of the Roman Republic from the enslavement of poor debtors. In like manner he takes up the apparent conflict between the passages in the several Mosaic books on the Sabbatic year (both as a year of fallow fields and of remission of debts) and between the passages dealing with involuntary manslaughter. In doing so, our writer goes over ground trodden nearly two thousand years ago by the sages of the Mishnah; but he strikes out his own line and stands forth much more logical than the old Pharisaic doctors; as well he might,

not being, as they were, tied down by their traditions, or by what may be called the Jewish Common Law. In showing that the Mosaic law never intended the literal enforcement of the rule "an eye for eye, a tooth for tooth," he could hardly help using the same arguments, the same collocation of the several passages as to "ransom," which were used and brought forward by the sages of the Talmud, and which were undoubtedly borne out by an unbroken tradition. He argues that all the leading critics were simply learned in language, not in jurisprudence; and that, unlike the lawyer, they do not grasp the difference in facts and conditions to which the different laws must of necessity be applied.

The writer dwells on the Covenant (Hebrew b'rith), of which he sets forth two kinds, the "pillar covenant" (i. e., one written on pillars, or denoted by pillars and mounds), and the "token covenant," marked by visible signs, which two covenants play a great part in the scriptural narrative; and he shows how the most important branches of law take the form of covenants or treaties between God and Israel. But it is not clear what bearing this form or sanction of the laws has on their date or on the unity of legislation in the lifetime of Moses. He is much more persuasive in deducing from the historic books and from the prophets the proof that the Law of Jubilee was in use under the old kingdom, and in showing the high improbability that post-exilic scribes could have invented for former centuries such a law, which their own contemporaries did not even attempt to renew-for, indeed, they could not have had any possible motive for inventing it. He maintains the antiquity of the law of inheritance given as an answer to "Zelophhad's Case" (Num. xxvii., 1-11), with its recognition of daughters as heirs in the absence of sons, against the pretence of the "critics" that this law must be of very late origin, because, from the Aryan standpoint, it seemed to them too humane for pre-exilic days; and here he is undoubtedly right, for Hammurabi's Code. much older than that of Moses, is even more liberal to the daughters as heiresses. He contests the claim of the critics that dowry coming from the bride's father could not co-exist with the Mohar, or bride's price, paid by the groom; for again Hammurabi's Code shows how both co-existed, and how the bridal price was at that date regularly returned to the husband, to be secured by him as a jointure for his wife in case of death or divorce.

Mr. Wiener's book might have been made much stronger if he had gone more into detail, and if he had drawn more fully on the parallels between Babylonian law, Torah and Jewish tradition. We are, of course, very far from taking sides with this author against the whole critical school; but the last word has not yet been spoken, and it is but proper that he and the side he represents should have a careful and patient hearing.

Thomas Hulchins: A Topographical Description of Virginia, Pennsylvania, Maryland and North Carolina. Reprinted from the original edition of 1778. Edited by Frederick Charles Hicks. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co. 1904.

The publishers, whose reprints of ne-

glected and well-nigh forgotten historical documents deserve not only praise but substantial recognition, have done well in reviving the memory and work of Hutchins, who, in his capacity of "Geographer of the United States," rendered important services to the young Republic. New Jersey in 1730, Hutchins entered the British army at an early age, first in the colonial, and then in the regular service. He evidently had a natural talent for engineering, surveying, and map-making, and in 1766 was employed in explorations of the territory acquired by Great Britain from France at the Treaty of Paris. In pursuance of his duties he travelled much, and brought back the fruit of his work in valuable surveys and maps. In 1778 he published in London the Topographical Description reprinted in this volume, as an accompaniment to a remarkable map, here reproduced on a large scale. His account of the country, the topography, mineral and vegetable products, etc., shows minute observation. We miss any reference to mineral oil, though it had certainly attracted attention, for on his map we find 'petroleum" about forty miles west of Pittsburgh.

While Hutchins was in London engaged on this work, the Revolution broke out, and as he did not disguise his sympathy with his countrymen, he suffered much persecution, was imprisoned under charge of treason, and had to give up his commission at a heavy pecuniary loss. He sought refuge in France, where he was befriended by Franklin, who recommended h'm to Congress. He returned to America just about the time that Greene took command of the Southern Department, and was appointed Geographer to the Southern army, a title soon changed to that of Geographer to the United States of Amer-After the conclusion of peace, he was employed in several important surveys and investigations, and in 1784 published a description of Louisiana and West Florida, a work packed with information about a region then little known. He dwells upon the importance of controlling the mouth of the Mississippi, the only outlet to the vast and fertile Western Territories.

Considerations of space forbid the mention of other valuable services to his country, but there is one which cannot be omitted. In 1785 Congress passed an ordinance providing for surveying, mapping, and dividing the Western lands ceded by Virginia and other States, and placing the whole work under the control of Hutchins. That he suggested the plan of division into townships of six miles square, subdivided into lots of one square mile each, all systematically numbered by ranges, townships, and lots, there seems hardly to be a doubt; but it is clear that the wording of the ordinance was not his. Instead of laying off ranges by east-and-west lines, and dividing these by normal ordinates. the ordinance provided for laying them off by due north-and-south lines. this plan, owing to the convergence of meridians, no township could be square, and no two townships in a range could be of equal area, as he pointed out in a letter to the President of Congress. But, whatever its defects, this plan was the foundation of our present land system. Hutchins was engaged on this work, and had completed plats of four ranges, when his health failed, and he died in Pittsburgh in 1789.

We regret that the edition is limited to 245 copies, as it is a book which should be in every public library.

California and its "issions: Their History to the Treaty of Guadalupe Hildalgo. By Bryan J. Clinch. 2 vols. San Francisco: The Whitaker & Ray Co. 1904.

This book, very creditable to both author and publishers, is well printed and not overloaded with illustrations. Those in the first volume are mostly taken from Venegas. and are therefore interesting from their quaintness. The author leans strongly towards the "old régime" (as Francis Parkman would have termed it) in California. It is pleasant reading to follow with him in the footsteps of the early missionaries, Jesuits as well as Franciscans, while he pictures their earnest labor and toil, and the modest fruits of their untiring devotion to their task. His appreciations of individual characters are usually just, and his biographic details correct. It is to be regretted that Mr. Clinch has not annotated his text and given references to his sources. An historical work of such magnitude demands the production of evidence in support of statements. Its unquestionable merits would be still further increased had the author paid more attention to his bibliography.

It is gratifying to note his attitude towards the superficial and often arrogant assertions concerning Spanish and Mexican California, its people, and their character, by visitors of Anglo-Saxon descent, from the later times of Mexican occupation. Whether his narrative of all the details of the American conquest of California is strictly uncolored or not may perhaps be open to doubt. Possibly his honest zeal for the reëstablishment of historic truth and the meting out of tardy justice has carried him a little too far towards the other extreme, and the "American conquest" of California was not quite as discreditable as he represents it. The "old régime" had not done justice to the enormous resources of California and could not do them justice, a change of masters was imperative, and, while some of the means employed to bring about the change will certainly not bear the light of impartial investigation without revealing features which Mr. Clinch justly censures, we must not conclude that every act was reprehensible because performed by the conquering party.

To the always attractive figures of the early missionaries the best pages of the two volumes are dedicated. Great and noble figures they will always remain, whether they are Jesuits like Kuehne (not Kuehn, as Mr. Clinch has it), Sedelmair (not Siedelmeyer, vol. i., p. 83-the Sedelmairs are a well-known Bavarian family), Salvatierra, or Franciscans like Father Garces (who. in our opinion, deserved a more ample notice than the few references in chapters v. and viii. of volume ii.), Junipero Serra, and others. They command the respect and admiration even of those who may be bitterly opposed to the Catholic Church and its monastic institutions. Mr. Clinch's narrative of the early efforts to discover and colonize Lower California and to explore the coast to the north, is noteworthy, and contains much that is valuable. In these first chapters of the first volume are embodied his conceptions of Spain's government and administration of her American colonies and of her "Indian policy." The fairness with which he treats these subjects is worthy of sincere commendation. We cannot refrain from calling special attention to the following passage (vol. i., p.

"Deeds of violence and wrong to the weaker races unfortunately have marked the history of European colonization al-most everywhere during the years since Co-lumbus began his first colony. If those committed by the early Spanish conquerors, who for more than a century were the only representatives of Europe in colonionly representatives of Europe in colonization enterprise, have been more widely published than others, the chief reason is because they were more vigorously condemned by their own countrymen, without regard for national prejudices. In the sixteenth century the moral sense of the Spansh people revolted more keenly at cruelty and oppression of the Indians than did that of England or Holland in the seventeenth and eighteenth, when their colonizations. teenth and eighteenth, when their coloni-zations began. The destruction of the na-tives of San Domingo and Cuba is familiar to all, while the like extermination of the Tasmanians, the Bosjesmen and Hottentots of South Africa, and even those of the old New England tribes, are hardly spoken of. It is mainly so because the Spanish historians held justice above national vanity, and denounced the misdeeds in strong language, while those of England or Holland kept silence on the atrocities of their coun-trymen. Neither England nor Holland has produced a Las Casas.'

This could not be more truly expressed. Similar passages, equally forcible, might be quoted to show how well and honestly the author has carried out the task he has undertaken. Some flaws in the spelling of Spanish words, especially proper names, are not worth specifying.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Lyman. The Christian Ministry. Boston:
Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50 net.
Allbutt, T. Clifford. The Historical Relations of Medicine and Surgery. Macmillan Co. \$1 net.
Baedeker's Belgium and Holland. 14th ed. Imported by Scribners. \$1.80 net.
Bréal, Auguste. Velazquez. Dutton. \$1 net.
Bróal, Heinrich. Tippu Tip. Lemeke & Buechner.
Brown, P. Hume. Scotland in the Time of Queen Mary. Imported by Scribners.
Carling, John R. The Weird Picture. Boston:
Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50.
Carnegie, Andrew. James Watt. Doubleday, Page & Co. \$1.40 net.
Carpenter, William Boyd. The Witness to the Influence of Christ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.10 net.
Camberlain, Esther and Lucia. Mrs. Essington. Century Co. \$1.50.
Chandler, Izora, and Mary W. Montgomery. Gold in the Gardens of Araby. Eaton & Mains. 75 cents net.
Coleman. Waiter Moore. Lessons in Hygienic Physiology, Macmillan Co.
Cynewulf's Dream of the Rood. Edited by Albert S. Cook. Henry Frowde.
Dall, Caroline H. "Fog Bells." G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Dougan, T. W. Cleeronis Tusculanse Disputationes. Vol. I., Books I. and II, Macmillan Co. \$3.
Fairless, Michael. The Grey Brethren. Dutton. \$1.25.
Flower, Frank Abial, Edwin McMasters Stauton. Akron, O.: Saaifield Publishing Co.
Garden of a Commuter's Wife, The. New ed. Macmillan Co.
Garden of a Commuter's Wife, The. New ed. Macmillan Co.
Garden of a Commuter's Wife, The. New ed. Macmillan Co.
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Helbert George, Octave, and Fernand Jousselin. La Chemme du Grand Condé. Paris: Libratire Plon. Rethue desse Lyman. Story of the Elide Publis.

emy and its Members. Imported by Scribners. \$5
net.
Homberg, Octave, and Fernand Jousselin. La
Femme du Grand Condé. Paris: Librairle Plon.
Hurlbut, Jesse Lyman. Story of the Bible. Philadelphia: J. C. Winston Co.
Job. Herbert K. Wild Wings. Boston: Houghton,
Miffilin & Co. \$3 net.

Jones, Rufus M. Social Law in the Spiritual World.
Philadelphia: J. C. Winston Co. \$1.25 net.
Kirk, William F. The Norsk Nightingale. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75 cents net.
Lazarre, Jacob. Beating Sea and Changeless Bar.
Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of
America.

ton: Small, Maynard & Co. 7b cents net. Lazarre, Jacob. Beating Sea and Changeless Bar. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America. Livy. Books I., XXI. XII. Edited by Emory B. Lease. Universal Publishing Co. Martineau, James. Tides of the Spirit. Boston: American Unitarian Association. \$1 net. Norris, W. E. An Embarrassing Orphan. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. \$1.50.
Oppenheim, I. International Law. Vol I., Peace. Longmans. \$6.50 net.
Orcutt, William Dana. The Flower of Destiny. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$1.25.
Perris, G. H. Russia in Revolution. London: Chapman & Hall.
Pocock. Roger, Curly. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50.
Pollock, Guy C. Hay Fever. Longmans. \$1.25.
Printon, Selwyn. Corregio at Parma. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co. 1.50.
Robinson, Rowland E. Hunting without a Gun. Forest and Stream Publishing Co. \$2.
Rome. Painted by Alberto Pisa. Text by M. A. R. Tuker and H. Malleson. Macmillan Co. \$6.
Scott. Leroy. The Waiking Delegate. Doubleday. Page & Co. \$1.50.
Scilncourt. Basil de. Giotto, Imported by Scribners. \$2 net.
Thorndike, Edward L. The Elements of Psychology. A. G. Seiler.
Weir. Harrison. The Poultry Book. Parts XVI.. XVII. XVIII. Doubleday, Page & Co. 60 cents net each.
Wood, L. C. For a Free Conscience. Fleming H. Everell Co. \$1.50.

AVII. AVIII. Doubleday, Page & Co. 60 cents net each, Wood, L. C. For a Free Conscience, Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1.50.

FIRE

The Story of a London Poet DIVINE BY MAY SINCLAIR. \$1.50

Miss Mary Moss in the Atlantic: "In all our new fiction I have found nothing worthy to compare with it-nothing even remotely approaching the same class."

The Critic's Six Best Books in fiction of the last six months include The Divine Fire

Bookman: "One of those rare books. . . of very unusual Henry Holt & Co. N. Y.



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